







FIRST BIENNIAL REPORT
OF THE BUREAU OF
INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS
AND
INFORMATION
OF MARYLAND.

1884-1885.

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THOMAS C. WEEKS, CHIEF OF BUREAU.

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STATE OF MARYLAND.

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CHIEF OF BUREAU,

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STATE OF MARYLAND.

OFFICE OF THE BUREAU OF
INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS AND INFORMATION.

ANNAPO利S, MD., January 1st, 1886.

To His Excellency, Henry Lloyd, Governor of the State of Maryland.

SIR: I have the honor to submit, for the information of the General Assembly, through the hands of your Excellency, this, the first report of the Bureau of Industrial Statistics and Information.

Your obedient servant,

THOMAS C. WEEKS,

Chief of Bureau.



CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

To the Honorable the General Assembly of Maryland—

In accordance with the requirements of the Acts of 1884, Chapter 211, (a) I beg herewith to submit to your honorable body the accompanying report.

On entering upon the discharge of my duties in this office I found the field almost untrodden, and the absence of previous inquiry proved a serious hindrance to the work and placed me at a disadvantage. I mean that while very much time and labor has been devoted to the collection and tabulation of industrial statistics which refer to the commerce and manufactures of the State of Maryland, and more especially to Baltimore City; and while the natural products, geographical situation, and means of transportation, etc., have been very exhaustively treated by able writers, yet such statistics refer more to products than producer, and to a great extent ignore such subjects as the average number of hands employed, the fluctuation of wages, the average time of labor, cost and condition of living, and similar important data, which it has been my endeavor in this report, as far as possible, to supply.

Such references, therefore, as are herein made to the quantity of production, character of raw material, peculiarities of soil and climate, etc., are but incidental to the main object of my inquiry.

(a) See Chapter VIII.)

I apprehend that it was the intention of the Legislature to create this Bureau in the special interest of the wage-workers of the State, and while recognizing the fact, that under our system of society, the interests of one class greatly affect the interests of all; that the more extensive our commerce, and the greater the facilities afforded manufacture, the better should be the condition of those who labor; that an enlarged market should increase the demand for workmen, and relatively increase the price of wages, the distribution of wealth, and the quantity of home consumption. Yet, experience teaches that in the midst of plenty poverty exists, and that the increase of aggregate wealth by no means proves the better condition of the wealth producers; that while glowing reports of increased products, sales and shipments have been generally accepted as evidence of the individual prosperity of our citizens, yet such facts often hide under a gilded exterior very many hardships, perils and disasters, which are suffered by the industrial masses, and which it is often within the scope of legislation to alleviate and remove.

The object of this Bureau has been, therefore, to seek out the workman, to inspect the individual, and, as fully as was possible in a first report, to present the facts of his condition.

It has not been possible to draw comparisons to demonstrate the advance or retrogression of the workman in the social scale from actual figures, because no such inquiry has been made before, and, therefore, sufficient facts relating to the past are not on record.

Those who are interested in commercial and productive statistics will find them very fully recorded in the following works: "History of Maryland," and "History of Baltimore City and County," J. Thos. Scharf, A. M.; "The Port of Baltimore in 1882," H. O. Haughton; "U. S. Census Reports, 1870-1880;" "Sketch of the History of the Manufacturers of Maryland," 1882, issued by the Merchants' and Manufac-

turers' Association ; "A Review of the Commerce of the City of Baltimore," 1884, Jno. R. Bland ; "Statistical Gazetteer," 1856, Edwards ; "The Memorial Volume" of Baltimore's 150th anniversary, etc.

It has been necessary to practice close economy, and to devote much personal labor to collect the information herein submitted, yet I believe, notwithstanding the many difficulties which attend a new undertaking, this first report of the Maryland Bureau will compare favorably with the early reports of similar offices in other states, and that the intelligent policy which led to its establishment will be supplemented by such legislation as in your judgment may be necessary to make it a yet more valuable branch of the public service.

I have aimed to make the report interesting in style and method, realizing, from the numerous applications for copies on file in my office, that it will be read by a large section of the public, at home and abroad ; and I take this opportunity to express my personal obligations to individuals and trade organizations in various parts of the State for valuable assistance rendered to me, and I gratefully acknowledge that without such voluntary aid, my report must have been less comprehensive than it is.

It is a proverbial truth that "one half of the world does not know how the other half lives," and it is equally true that, as a basis of wise and beneficent legislation, such knowledge cannot be too carefully sought after by the law-making power in the State.

The social and moral condition of the producing masses is the standard measure of civilization, and the importance of statistical information on this subject is recognized by the progressive statesmen of all nations.

This is more especially true of that period arrived at in the history of all states, when, to satisfy the artificial wants and tastes of the people, the labor becomes minutely subdivided, when the general mechanic dies out, and the specialist occupies his place.

This condition is well illustrated by a learned author, (b) in the History of Ancient Rome. And what was true of the old world in the first century, in many respects aptly describes the new world in this nineteenth century of the Christian era.

“Rome,” says this author, “was truly a bee-hive of artisans and mechanics. Bakers, tailors, shoemakers, carpenters, smiths, dyers, tanners, fullers, potters, masons, carvers, and a host of others, here busily plied their trades, and earned a modest livelihood. How wonderful was the skill of many of these mechanics we know from the specimens of their art, which have been preserved for us at Pompeii and Herculaneum; but the development of their crafts is also strikingly shown by the minute subdivision of labor which we meet with in Imperial Rome. Take the tailors, for instance. Besides the tailoresses (*sarcinatrices*), we find general tailors (*sartores*), shirt-makers (*indusiarii*), menders and slave tailors (*centonarii*). Of shoemakers there were five or six varieties. Even the sculptor restricted himself to one branch of his art. There were artists who produced only genii, or victories—nay, some whose sole occupation was to insert eyes into statues made by others. Two statues have been found in which the bodies were exact duplicates, though one was surmounted by the head of Augustus, and the other by that of Agrippa. Some sculptors, therefore, kept on hand a supply of ready-made bodies, for which heads were made to order. Of course, the price of work so produced was very low, and a respectable life-size statue of marble or bronze could be got for one hundred and thirty to one hundred and seventy dollars, at a time when from ten to thirty thousand dollars were paid for a Phidias or a Scopas.

“No doubt many of the mechanics and tradesmen of Rome were slaves; but that a large number were free citizens must be inferred from the number and importance of their *Collegia* or guilds. Their establishment reaches back into hoary

(b) “Business Life in Ancient Rome,” by Chas. G. Herbermann, Ph. D.

antiquity, for they are said to have been founded by Numa Pomipillus. They were associations with corporate rights, whose aim was not only to further the business interests of their members, but also to provide them with congenial amusements. Not only each trade had its guild, but sometimes each branch of a trade. For instance, there were not only goldsmith and silversmith guilds, but also a guild of ringmakers. Of their influence on business life we have no detailed knowledge. We are better informed of their social features. They all worshipped Minerva, the goddess of mechanical arts, whose festival (March 19th to 23d) they scrupulously kept; but besides each guild had some special patron, whose feast was celebrated by them with much pomp and display. The bakers, for instance, were the special wards of Vesta, the goddess of the hearthfire, and on her feast (June 9th) they marched forth in procession, accompanied by their asses, which were adorned with garlands of flowers and loaves of bread. The musicians had a more exalted patron—Jupiter Capitolinus himself—and right royally did they honor his feast (June 13th). Masked, for the most part, in female garb, they marched through the streets, full of mirth and wine, playing and singing the jolliest of songs. But one of the merriest days in the early life of the Roman mechanic was the feast of Anna Perenna, on the Ides of March. On that occasion the laboring classes had a universal picnic outside the city, and many a bumper was drunk, for each prognosticated for himself as many additional years of life as he quaffed glasses of wine. Toward evening, when all had insured for themselves a long life, they returned home, not without affording much amusement to the city *gamins* and much trouble to their wives, whose duty it was to convey their jolly lords to their homesteads." — "Forbiger has conjectured that shop rent in Rome cost \$60 to \$75 annually, while the average yearly pay of a journeyman mechanic was from \$95 to \$125 and board. The annual cost of food he computes at \$40, and of clothing at \$15 per head."

But labor-saving machinery was, in those days, of the most simple kind. It was left to this age of invention to substitute for human brain and muscle the unrelenting agency of iron and steel; and it is to this agency, more than perhaps any other, we may trace in modern times that subdivision of labor which has supplanted the skilled mechanic and substituted a multitude of workmen who are at best only operators of machines.

Careful observation and some years practical experience has shown me that the number of skilled mechanics (men who can contrive as well as create) is growing less; that in this respect we have drawn largely on the foreign element and neglected the cultivation of young native talent; and there has scarcely been a manufacturer in this State, interviewed by this Bureau, who has not expressed the want of skillful men, properly equipped with a practical knowledge of their trade. Such men, as a rule, come from the small shop, and not from the large factory. They are the result of the shifts and contrivances which are necessary in a shop which is not supplied with the endless resources of modern tools and machines, and they are by far the most accomplished mechanics; they are handy men for a pinch, and I venture to say that a policy looking to the encouragement of the small shop would be more generally beneficial than that which is adopted for the increase of large concerns.

It is not so much in the increase of production that a state is benefited, as by the regularity of employment enjoyed by her citizens. The multiplication of the small shop relieves the labor market, tends to advance wages, and directs a current of skilled mechanics to our small towns and villages, bringing the manufacturer closer to the agricultural producer, to their mutual benefit.

The bootmaker, who from measuring the foot can complete the boot without the aid of machinery, is the man who, away from the great centres of industry, can open his own shop and with his kit, skill, and perseverance, thrive on his own labor.

And what is true of the bootmaker is true also of other trades—the cabinetmaker, blacksmith, machinist, carpenter, etc. But in the city, where large capital commands the most perfect machinery, there is but little scope for the average man, and he is reduced to a life of toil, keeping pace with the machinery of the shop, going when it goes, and stopping when it stops.

That this condition of labor tends to reduce wages, retard the circulation of money, and lower the intellectual standard of workingmen, must be evident. The man whose place at the machine can be taken by almost any hand applying for work, whose task can be learned in a few months or less, cannot demand any great remuneration for his labor, or maintain his position without many sacrifices, and the monotonous nature of his occupation, requiring no original thought or particular application, leaves the mind without expansion and effectually blunts the keen edge of individual ambition.

The feeling of helplessness which this system engenders in the individual, the feeling that his very existence depends upon the machinery, of which he practically forms a part, inevitably leads to labor organization ; it is the origin of the trades union.

The trades union in England did not make itself felt until after the advent of machinery, between the years 1824 and 1871, since which latter date, as legalized bodies, trades unions have flourished and wonderfully increased.

These bodies of organized labor have, under wise counsels, exercised a marked influence on English legislation, tending to the dissemination of democratic principles, enlarging the franchise, and fostering the more liberal ideas of popular government. They have originated—and to a great extent perfected—a system of laws relating to industry known as “Factory Acts,” which, in their practical detail, surpass any legislation of modern times, and which, applied to mining, mechanics and manufactures, have done much to improve the condition and elevate the standard of the English workman.

In our State the trade unions are comparatively in their infancy.* Unlike their brethren across the Atlantic, they have not thought it advisable, as yet, to open their doors and invite the scrutiny of the public.

*Owing to the fact that no provision was made for printing the report of this Bureau until the close of the legislative session of 1886, an interval of three months has elapsed between the presentation of this report to his Excellency, Governor Henry Lloyd, and the date of going to press. During this time a great movement has taken place among the industrial masses of this State and country, which is at once so remarkable and important as to command the serious attention of all classes of citizens.

The year 1886 will be marked in the social history of the American people for the extraordinary impetus which has been given to labor organizations. Simultaneously, all over the states, following no given track, bounded by no minor geographical limits, confined to no particular industries, the impulse to organize seems to have possessed the wage-workers of the country, and since writing the body of this report, within three months the trade unions have multiplied and increased with a rapidity which amazes the observer, and suggests many and grave reflections to the thoughtful mind.

For some years, with varying success, the trade unions of Maryland have slowly increased their membership, but during these few months it is no exaggeration to say they have more than quadrupled their numbers. The workmen have enrolled themselves, not by twos and threes, but by hundreds, who in solid bodies have marched up to the doors of the unions and demanded admission. So eager has been the impulse to join the ranks of the great army of organized workers that it has been found necessary, in the cooler judgment of the leaders, to place an arbitrary check on the movement by refusing to grant charters during a stated period.

Neither is this an organization of separate trades. The groups are not coming together as blacksmiths, or bakers, or leather workers, but the tendency is to consolidate, to recognize the dependence of one branch of industry upon another, and (in the expressive language of the West) "to pool their issues."

This is a social rather than a political revolution. To those who have carefully observed the labor movement for the past ten years, the development of these three months is but the practical expression of ideas which for a long time have been entertained by the workingmen of the country. I venture to suggest, as my individual opinion, that the origin of these ideas is to be found in the depression of trade and reduction of wages, resulting from the unrestricted increase of labor-saving machinery.

This sudden, rapid and extraordinary development of organization, while a matter of surprise to the general public, is to be accounted for by the fact that—the material being prepared—it required only some extra impetus to roll it up to its present proportions. In my judgment it found that impetus in the special notice of the newspaper press. For years the principles advocated by the labor unions have been confined to the privacy of their meetings, and the very existence of such bodies has been unheeded by the public. Their incorporation into the Knights of Labor consolidated their interests, and brought them more directly into contact with consolidated capital. The press of our metropolitan centres recorded the facts of some trade disputes which were settled by arbitration, on business principles, wherein the representatives of tens of thousands of workmen met the representatives of millions of dollars, and instantly the eyes of the entire country were directed to the fact of labor organizations. I have care-

Their primary object is the protection of their members—that each individual may receive the support of all the others, and so far, to oppose any effort made to take undue advantage of the necessities of the workman; but for some years past, in the seclusion of their assemblies, ideas have been developed beyond the limits of their special trade concerns—

fully endeavored to ascertain the thoughts and opinions of our home labor on this subject, and my conclusions are based on the results of such inquiry. I regard this sudden development as an overgrowth, and believe it will, to an extent, die off. A part of this increase lacks stability of purpose, and misapprehends the possibilities, duties, and objects of labor organization. It is well to remember, however, that it is attached to a parent stem which is firmly rooted in our social system, and which is there to stay. A close personal contact with many of the leaders who, while unknown to the general public, yet bear the burden of the movement and largely direct it, has convinced me that the organization is destined, by peaceable, strictly legal methods, to produce many alterations in the methods of conducting our industries; that the apostles of bloodshed and riot are the great exceptions in labor organizations, and when met with are the most unlikely to engage in enterprises involving danger to their own person. A fact also of some importance is that of late the bulk of the recruits has been among the young men. The organization in this State has extended beyond the city of Baltimore. Assemblies of the Knights of Labor have been founded in Garrett, Alleghany, Washington, Howard, Harford, Baltimore, Cecil, Frederick, and Anne Arundel counties. The central bodies are—

"The Federation of Miners and Mine Laborers."

The District Assembly 41, K. of L., Baltimore.

The District Assembly 25, K. of L., Alleghany county.

The Federation of Labor, Baltimore.

The "Vereinigten Deutschen Geweskschaften," or United German Trades Union, Baltimore.

Under these general bodies all the various local unions and assemblies are combined.

I estimate the membership of the trade organizations of the State at 27,000. The Knights of Labor had 49 Assemblies, aggregating 16,000 members, at the time of printing this report. The various unions are rapidly enrolling themselves in this Order.

The following is a list of the trade organizations in Baltimore City—

Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners— Lathers' Union.

Union No. 29.

Leather Workers' Union.

Bartenders' Union.

Lumber Handlers' Union.

Bookbinders' Union.

Millers and Mill Helpers' Union.

Brickmakers' Union, No. 1.

Machinists' Union.

Brickmakers' Union, No. 2.

Marble Workers' Union.

Brickmakers' Union, No. 3.

Monumental Marble Cutters' Union.

Brickmakers' Union, No. 4.

Metal Workers' Union.

Buttonhole Workers' Union.

Mount Royal Assembly.

ideas relating to social and political government which must, at no distant date, affect popular legislation; indeed already such is the case. The existence of this Bureau, and similar offices throughout the states, as also the creation of a National

Boilermakers' Union.	The Mozart Assembly—	{
Blacksmiths and Helpers' Union.	Musical Union,	
Barbers' Protective Union.	Independent Musical Union,	
Bakers' Union (journeymen).	Musical Protective Union.	
Butchers' Union (journeymen).	Mt. Clare Employees—3 Assemblies.	
Bricklayers' Union.	Odorless Union.	
Broommakers' Union.	Oyster Shuckers' Union.	
Bottlers and Drivers' Union.	Plasterers' Union.	
Basketmakers' Union.	Painters' Assembly.	
Brewery Employees' Union.	Pressmen and Stereotypers' Union.	
Brassworkers' Union.	Pianomakers' Union.	
Brushmakers' Union.	Pianomakers' Union, No. 17 (English).	
Boxmakers' Union.	Paperhangers' Union.	
Cart Owners' Protective Union.	Plumbers and Gasfitters' Assembly.	
Cannmakers' Protective Union.	Patternmakers' Union.	
Cigarmakers' Union.	Ship Joiners' Union.	
Caulkers' Union.	Stonemasons' Union.	
Cake and Cracker Bakers' Union.	Stone Rubbers and Polishers' Union.	
Carddrivers and Conductors' Assembly.	Steam Fitters and Helpers' Union.	
Cutters and Trimmers' Union.	Sash and Planing Mills Union.	
Carriage and Wagon Builders' Union.	Shirt Cutters' Union.	
Coopers' Union.	Shoemakers' Union.	
Cabinetmakers' Union.	Shoesalesmen's Union.	
Drivers and Teamsters' Union.	Straw Hat Makers' Association.	
Engineers' (stationary) Union.	Sailmakers' Union.	
Electric Union.	Stevedores' Assembly.	
Furniture Workers' Union.	South Baltimore Shipwrights' Union.	
Fresco Painters' Union (German).	East Baltimore Shipwrights' Union.	
Glass Blowers—The Glass Blowers' Federation of North America.	Tanners and Curriers' Union, No. 1.	
Flint Glass Blowers' Union.	Tin Assortment Workers' Union.	
Green Bottle Blowers' League.	Tin and Sheet Iron Workers' Assembly.	
Window Light Blowers' Union.	Tailors Pressers' Union.	
Germania Tailors' Association.	Terra-Cotta Firebrick and Stoveling	
Hairworkers' Union.	Workers' Union.	
Horse Shoers' Union.	Tobacco Workers' Union.	
Hod Carriers' Union, No. 1.	Typographical Union, No. 12.	
Hod Carriers' Union, No. 2.	Typefounders' Union.	
Granite Cutters' Union.	Upholsterers' Union.	
Ice Drivers' Union.	Varnishers and Oil Finishers' Assembly.	
Iron Moulders' Union.	Wireworkers' Union.	
	Wheelwrights' Union.	

Bureau, is, indirectly, the result of the demand for information respecting the condition of the industrial masses, made by the labor organizations of the country.

The trade organization, to a great extent, takes the place of the individual, and questions respecting the employment of labor become questions between the employer and the union, rather than between the employer and the employee.

With the exception of a few strikes* of a local character, no active antagonism between capital and labor has been manifested during the period of the existence of this office, a fact which may be attributed to three causes: First. There is no predominant industry in the State of Maryland. Second. In the section generally populated by one class of labor (Alleghany and Garrett counties), there is not so thorough a trade organization as existed a few years ago. (c) Third. Because the condition of our citizens is, comparatively, as favorable as that of other states. I do not mean that the general quiet, the absence of strikes and contentions, should be understood as indicating that no abuses exist in the employment of labor. There are many opportunities for the better regulation of our

* See Chapter VI.

(c) In the month of September, 1885, the miners amalgamated in the National Federation of Miners and Mine Laborers, District No. 3. This district includes Irwin, Pa., Clearfield, Myersdale, Garrett, Pocahontas, Elk Garden and George's Creek regions.

The object of the Federation is to unite in several districts all the coal miners in the country.

On February 18, 1886, the Executive Board of the Federation submitted to the operators a scale of prices, making an uniform advance of wages: 10 cents per ton being the advance for digging coal; and requested a consultation with the operators. This was disregarded by the several companies, and on the 8th of March a strike was inaugurated. The Maryland coal fields employ about 2,850 miners, and 720 general employees, making an aggregate of 3,570 men and boys.

This is a striking example of the recent rapid development of organization. When I visited the coal fields in 1885, there was an exceedingly feeble body of the K. of L., and not the least intention to strike manifested. The memory of the great strike of 1852 was continually referred to in conversation, and the misery and poverty produced in the district was vividly described, yet, within a short time, all the men were enrolled and another strike inaugurated. What the end will be cannot be foreseen.

industries, but our citizens, as a rule, are conservative, law-abiding, and more ready to patiently endure the ills which may befall them, than to gratify their resentment by active opposition. In my intercourse with the people, I have found a general confidence that, by wise legislation, abuses may be remedied, and the burden of labor made lighter to the shoulders of the working men, women and children of Maryland. It is a confidence I heartily endorse. No system of government can be enduring, no state can be prosperous, except the condition of the wealth producers be the constant care of those who make and those who administer the laws. The better sheltered, clothed, fed and educated the labor of a state, the more prosperous must be her manufactures, the more peaceful her society, and the more secure the enjoyment of her wealth.

I am sensible that this report falls short of the standard I could desire, and, indeed, that I hoped to have attained; but it is the result of an honest endeavor to submit to your honorable body such an unbiased presentation of facts as should emanate from a state office; and I trust that it may merit your approbation, and prove of service to the citizens of Maryland.

I beg to direct your attention, in the following chapter, to the formation and history of similar offices to this in the various states in which they have been established.

CHAPTER II.

LABOR BUREAUS.

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LABOR BUREAUS.

The systematic collection of statistics is one of the higher necessities of the science of government.

It is appreciated only when a state becomes so populous, and its interests so complicated, as to require for its proper regulation those nicer discriminations of law, which can only result from a proper knowledge of facts; facts which are diversified, which may not be the subject of popular discussion, but which are material to the health and prosperity of large bodies of the people.

Statistics are the raw material of legislation. However astute the Legislature, however generally well informed, and however good its intentions, it cannot be expected that every member will know the varied conditions existing in the body politic.

This is the experience of all legislative bodies, and, consequently, the more perfect the system that gathers such facts, the more accurately they are compiled, and especially the more carefully comparisons are made, the greater is the security afforded for the enactment of salutary laws.

For upwards of 50 years England has adopted such a system, the results of which are compiled in numerous reports. The European nations also have instituted bureaus for the same purpose. The Federal Government of the United States has likewise devoted much time and expense to the same object; and the reports of the Census Bureau contain a great variety

of information, gathered decennially from every section of the country. In addition to this, the Consular reports supply interesting and valuable data for comparison with our home industry.

For some years past, however, there has been a general demand for more local inquiry. The diversity of the laws of the several states, the great variety of territory, products, and climate, the different character of labor, and the changing circumstances under which our industries are prosecuted, required of the state governments the establishment of separate bureaus, whose object was more directly to gather information respecting their various trades and industries.

To a large extent this policy was dictated by the demands of labor organizations, happily endorsed by the intelligent and influential portion of the American press.

The existence of labor bureaus is therefore a marked indication of the intellectual development of the trades unions. The antiquated policy which was based on physical force, which produced strikes and riots, which induced ungovernable bodies of enraged men to destroy the works of their own industry, in the blind hope of bettering their condition, while not extinct, is largely controlled by a more enlightened sentiment. The advanced leaders among the organizations realize that "knowledge is power," and that to know the true condition of the trades is the first step towards remedying any evils which may exist.

The history of these Bureaus has been progressive. A glance at the first report of the Massachusetts office, issued in 1870, and, at the last, issued in 1884, very strikingly illustrates the growth of statistical science. That it is a system valued by the citizens of that commonwealth is evident from the support they have rendered it during the sixteen years of its existence, and that the character of the work accomplished is satisfactory, is testified to by the frequent reference made to its reports by the press and public men of this and other countries.

Table Showing the Annual Cost of the Massachusetts Labor Bureau from the Creation of Office to Close of 1884.

For the Year Ending.	Salary of Chief.	Salary of First Clerk.	Contingent Expenses.	Printing Reports.	Total Expenses.
1870*....	\$1,034 94	\$ 87 21	\$1,804 61	\$	\$ 3,656 76
1871	2,500 00	2,000 00	4,909 06	4,540 70	13,949 76
1872	2,500 00	2,000 00	5,852 43	7,488 68	17,841 11
1873	2,500 00	2,000 00	5,000 00	6,872 08	16,372 08
1874	2,699 99	1,927 78	5,435 60	9,131 31	19,194 68
1875	3,000 00	2,000 00	5,017 50	7,429 14	17,446 64
1876	3,000 00	2,000 00	5,407 22	3,265 04	13,672 26
1877	2,654 17	1,654 17	4,992 06	3,926 63	13,227 03
1878	2,500 00	1,500 00	5,044 67	2,918 61	11,963 28
1879	2,500 00	1,500 00	4,723 28	1,835 07	10,558 35
1880	2,500 00	1,500 00	4,499 42	1,356 98	9,856 40
1881	2,500 00	1,500 00	5,598 27	1,569 43	11,167 70
1882	2,500 00	1,500 00	5,000 00	2,829 62	11,829 62
1883	2,500 00	1,500 00	6,000 00	2,438 43	12,438 43
1884	2,500 00	1,500 00	6,300 00	2,336 21	12,636 21
Total..	37,389 10	\$24,169 16	\$75,584 12	\$57,937 93	\$195,810 31

In addition to this appropriation, the Massachusetts Bureau, in the year 1885, received a sum not exceeding \$150,000, to be expended in taking the census of the State; and in the performance of that duty, has employed 570 enumerators in the field, and 64 clerks in the office. I would ask that, in the event of any comparisons being made between reports, the abundant means furnished the Massachusetts office for acquiring information, as also the fourteen years of experience which has perfected its operation, be contrasted with the force of the Maryland office, its youth, and the appropriation of \$2,500 per annum.

From a study of the several reports of other states, I am inclined to think that, with the advancing years of their operation, some bureaus are developing a tendency towards *theoretical* statistical science, and loosing sight of the practical purpose of their creation. I venture to suggest that the permanency and utility of labor bureaus will largely depend on the results of their labors being presented in a manner which can be readily understood and appreciated by the bulk of the industrial population.

* Six months' expenses, from August, 1869.

Table Showing the Order in which the Several Bureaus Have Been Established.

Name of number. 24	Name of State.	NAME OF OFFICE.	CHIEF OFFICER.		POSTOFFICE.
			Year.	Title.	
1	Mass...	Bureau of Statistics of Labor.....	1869	Chief.	Carroll D. Wright.
2	Penna..	Bureau of Industrial Statistics.....	1872	Chief.	Joel B. McCamant.
3	Conn*..	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	1873	Comm'r	A. T. Hadley.
4	Ohio...	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	1877	Chief.	Henry Dorn.
5	N. J....	Bureau of Statistics of Labor and Industries.....	1878	Chief.	James Bishop.
6	Mo....	Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection.....	1879	Comm'r	Oscar Kochitzky.
7	Ill....	Bureau of Labor Statistics.....	1879	Sec'y.	John S. Lord.
8	Ind....	Bureau of Statistics and Geology.....	1879	Chief.	Wm. A. Peele, Jr.
9	N. Y....	Bureau of Labor Statistics	1883	Comm'r	Chas. F. Peck.
10	Calif...	Bureau of Labor Statistics	1883	Comm'r	John S. Enos.
11	Mich....	Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics.....	1883	Comm'r	C. Y. R. Pond.
12	Wis....	Bureau of Labor Statistics	1883	Comm'r	F. A. Flower.
13	Iowa....	Bureau of Labor Statistics	1884	Comm'r	F. R. Hutchins.
14	Md....	Bureau of Industrial Statistics and Information	1884	Chief.	Thomas C. Weeks.
15	U. S....	Bureau of Labor	1884	Comm'r	Carroll D. Wright.
16	Kan....	Bureau of Labor Statistics	1885	Comm'r	Frank H. Belton.

*After a discontinuance of some years this office was reorganized by an Act of the Connecticut Legislature during the session of 1885.

In December, 1871, the House of Representatives of the United States, by a vote of 134 to 36, passed a bill for the establishment of a National Bureau of Labor Statistics, which measure was defeated by the Senate. Ultimately the Forty-eighth Congress passed such a bill, appropriating \$25,000 per annum to defray the expenses of the office.(e) The Hon. Carroll D. Wright, Chief of the Massachusetts Bureau, was appointed Commissioner by President Arthur, and confirmed by President Cleveland.

The states mentioned as conducting Labor Bureaus provide for their operation as follows:

PENNSYLVANIA.

Salary of Chief, \$2,500; three clerks at \$1,400 each, and \$2,000 for expenses beyond cost of postage, printing, etc.

CONNECTICUT.

Salary of Commissioner, \$2,000; clerk, \$1,800, and all necessary expenses.

OHIO.

Salary of Commissioner, \$2,000, and necessary expenses.

NEW JERSEY.

Salary of Chief, \$2,500; necessary assistance and contingent fund, \$5,000.

MISSOURI.

Salary of Commissioner, \$2,000; necessary assistance and contingent fund, \$2,000.

ILLINOIS.

Salary of Secretary, \$1,200; 5 commissioners, \$750 salary; all necessary expenses.

INDIANA.

Salary and expenses, except printing report, paid out of an appropriation of \$4,000 per annum.

(e) See Chapter. VIII., "Laws."

NEW YORK.

Salary of Commissioner, \$2,500; deputy and clerk allowed, and \$5,000 contingent fund.

CALIFORNIA.

Salary of Commissioner, \$2,400; assistant's salary, \$1,500, and \$500 for expenses not otherwise provided for.

MICHIGAN.

Salary of Commissioner, \$2,000; deputy, \$1,500; contingent fund, \$5,000, and printing.

WISCONSIN.

Salary of Commissioner, \$1,500, and \$500 contingent fund.

IOWA.

Salary of Commissioner, \$1,500, and necessary postage and office expenses.

MARYLAND.

Annual appropriation of \$2,500, to pay salaries and all expenses. (f)

KANSAS.

Salary of Commissioner, \$1,000, and an appropriation, not exceeding \$4,000, for clerical assistance and expenses.

From this it will be seen that the Maryland Bureau is not so fully equipped as the majority of the other states' offices. Its powers also are not so extensive as those which most of the other states' offices possess, viz.: power to take testimony, to examine under oath, to enter workshops, mines, and factories, etc. The office being new, its object was not properly understood by the public, and by many was regarded with suspicion and distrust.

To seek information under such circumstances was not encouraging or very satisfactory in result. Many of those applied to would not give the information asked; others purposely misrepresented, and quite a number seemed inca-

(f) By an Act of 1886, \$2,000 was appropriated biennially to pay for the printing of the reports of this office.

pable of giving an intelligent answer to the questions propounded, and as the law creating the office gave no authority by which a response to official interrogatories could be enforced, the Bureau has been compelled to prosecute its inquiries privately, and trust largely to the kindness of friendly informants. Blank forms were issued, through the mail, enclosed in a stamped and directed envelope for return, to manufacturers and employees, and special blank forms to miners and women, in all parts of the State, as their addresses could be ascertained. Ample space for "Remarks" was left on all the blanks issued, and some (selected) suggestions and comments contained therein will be found in this report.*

So far as this method of inquiry went it proved satisfactory, and, perhaps, if the answering such blanks had been compulsory under the law, this system would be sufficiently reliable. It was, however, necessary to supplement the efforts so made, by close personal investigation, which was pursued whenever possible, and as far as means would permit, among both employers and employees. The results contained in this report have, therefore, such a reasonable degree of accuracy as could under the circumstances be attained.

Many of the difficulties which attend a new enterprise have been overcome. Experience has taught lessons in the conduct of the business of the office, which will be valuable in the future, and much of the time expended in preparing the ground work of the Bureau's operations, can be devoted, in coming years, to more extended and minute investigations.

* See Chapter VII.

CHAPTER III.

MARYLAND INDUSTRIES.

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MARYLAND INDUSTRIES.

In the preparation of this section of the Report, I have divided the trades under general heads, and endeavored to present a summary of the various industries in such a manner as to convey a just impression of their condition.

I have not attempted to reduce averages to minute fractions, for the reason, that without largely increasing the powers of the Bureau, sufficient accurate data on which to base so close a calculation could not be obtained. And, further, because such particularity is, in my judgment, for all practical purposes, unnecessary.

There are many circumstances which enter into such a computation as this. As, for example, the varying age of the workers, the grades of individual skill, the character of employer and employee, their nationality, the situation of their work, etc., which cause variations, requiring a corresponding elasticity in the averaging of wages; and a calculation which conveys a generally accurate impression of a trade is of more practical value than an attempt to reduce conditions of life within stringent mathematical boundaries.

There are few men engaged in the active industries who are prepared to appreciate such niceties; and the statement, that the average wages of workmen, engaged in a certain occupation is \$7.11 per week, is, for all purposes of this inquiry, as accurate as the statement, that they receive \$7.11 $\frac{1}{3}$.

My investigation of industrial reports has also led me to the conviction that a review, such as this chapter presents, is more serviceable to the Legislature than tabulated forms, which require more or less patient scrutiny to comprehend. The absence, however, of close fractional calculation is not to be taken as suggesting a careless scrutiny of figures. The information here presented is the result of searching personal investigation, and it is submitted as a simple statement of facts, without bias or prejudice. In regard to the number of hands employed in the several industries, it will be evident, that without an actual enumeration (which the appropriation and powers of this office would not permit), of all individuals employed, the exact figures could not be obtained. I have, therefore, computed the number of hands in some of the principal trades, from the basis of my own inquiries, comparing the results with the most reliable authorities at my command.

The result, as stated, includes in all cases only the hands engaged in the actual work of manufacture, and not those who are employed in the work of distribution, such as book-keepers, salesmen, etc., and which are included, in some instances, by other authorities.

It will appear, from a perusal of this chapter, that a very large proportion of the mechanical industry of Maryland is carried on in the City of Baltimore, and the prices ruling there may be said to constitute the standard of prices received in the other sections of the State, excepting that the facilities for cheaper living in the country districts reduces somewhat the rate.

Baltimore City has, consequently, demanded a very large share of my attention in prosecuting this inquiry, but I have extended my investigation to all portions of the State, and, as far as means would permit, to all branches of industry.

On taking a general review of the condition of our industries we may expect to find that, as a natural result of development, the State has increased her wealth. Thus, in 1870, the computed wealth of Maryland was \$643,748,976. In 1880 it had increased to \$869,000,000; which, allowing it to increase at the same ratio, would make it in 1885 no less than \$887,500,000. It may be mentioned, as a further indication of its growth, that during the spring of 1885 the sum of \$2,832,000 was invested in new industries in Maryland.

Yet it is a fact, that the bulk of our working people find it more difficult to live than they did a few years ago. They cannot command either the work or the wages that they were at one time accustomed to receive.

1884 and 1885 were exceptionally disastrous years to the labor of this State. During the greater portion of 1884, but more particularly after the month of May of that year, a great business depression was experienced in this country.

The financial panic which swept New York City in May, 1884, when the markets for stocks, cereals, provisions, iron, coal and manufactured goods fell lower and lower, when money brought 4 per cent. per day, and Government securities fell 7 per cent. in a week; when fifteen large failures were recorded in one week on the New York Exchange, while, perhaps, it did not directly affect Maryland, yet it intensified the existing feeling of insecurity and injured the condition of the trades.

Without suggesting a cause, it is sufficient here to state the fact, and to say, that during the fall of 1884 and the spring of 1885, business was "dull," complaints general, mechanics were on short time, and very many out of employment, and wages low. The fall season of 1885 shows

some improvement, and more steady employment for labor.* There is no reason, however, to anticipate an advance in the rate of wages per diem, because there has been a large proportionate increase in the number of hands who seek support by manufacturing industry, and a very large proportionate increase in female labor. I mean that, while with increasing manufacture we necessarily employ a greater number of hands, the number so employed is larger per thousand to the population now than formerly; that the tendency is in this direction, and that, consequently, there is a surplus of such labor in the market.

This being the first report of this office, it is impossible to make comparisons from original figures. I, therefore, speak of my own knowledge and experience, but I herewith submit the following tables, collated from the United States Census Reports for 1870 and 1880, which amply illustrate the subject—

TABLE I.—Showing the Population of Maryland in 1870 and 1880, the Number Engaged in Manufacture and Agriculture, and the Proportion so Employed per Thousand Inhabitants.

YEAR.	Population.	Number em- ployed in Manufacture.	Proportion per 1,000 inhabitants.	Number em- ployed in Agriculture.	Proportion per 1,000 inhabitants.
1870...	780,894	44,860	57	80,449	103
1880...	934,943	74,945	80	90,927	99

This table shows that while the labor engaged in manufacture has increased, that which is employed in agriculture has slightly decreased.

* This anticipation has not been fully realized in the opening months of 1886. So many strikes and trade disturbances have taken place that it has produced a corresponding feeling of uncertainty in manufacturing and commercial enterprises. A very large percentage of labor has been out of employment during the spring months, and wages have remained stationary.

TABLE II.—Analytical Table Showing the Labor of Maryland for 1870-80 Employed in Manufacture, with its Proportionate Increase.

	1870.	1880.	Increase.	Proportion of each class per 1,000 hands.	
Males.....	34,061	46,698	12,637	1870—769	1880—625
Females.....	8,278	21,700	13,422	185	294
Children.....	2,521	6,547	4,026	56	87
Total.....	44,860	74,945	30,085		

TABLE III.—Showing the Total Wages and the Individual Earnings per Year for 1870 and 1880 of Employees Engaged in Manufacture.

DATE.	Total number of hands employed.	Total wages paid.	Individual Earnings per year.
1870.....	44,860	\$12,682,817	\$282 72
1880.....	74,945	18,904,965	252 25

Table No. II. shows that the number of hands increased in ten years 12,637 men, 13,422 women, and 4,026 children; that in 1870 there were 769 men to every thousand hands employed, which proportion was *decreased* in 1880 to 625 men. That in 1870 there were 185 women to every thousand hands employed, which proportion *increased* in 1880 to 294 women. That in 1870 there were 56 children to every thousand hands employed, which proportion was *increased* in 1880 to 87 children, showing a considerable *increase* of woman and child labor. It will be seen from an examination of Table III. that the individual earnings have *decreased* nearly 11 per cent. per annum.

I have every reason to believe that the proportion of inhabitants seeking employment in manufacturing industry is greater now than in 1880, and that the employment of women at a low rate of wages is on the increase. That these workers have not been fully employed during the last two years, and that wages have fallen still lower; and, therefore, I do not

expect to see an advance in the rate of wages. While this is a fair review of the common condition of labor, there is one class of industry which may be said to have profited by the general depression, the increased vitality in which absolutely proves the corresponding lethargy in the other branches, and that is the

BUILDING TRADE.

The tendency of capital to find safe investment, and the facilities for such afforded by the ground-rent system in vogue in this State, improves the condition of the building trade during seasons of business depression. The great majority of building done in Baltimore City during the last two years has been speculative in its character. Houses are erected to create ground rents as an investment, and notwithstanding some opinions to the contrary, ventilated in the public press, the fact that a large number of new dwellings are built is not an indication of increasing prosperity among the people, or that the demands of our industry is enlarging our population. In support of this statement, I here call attention to the following facts—

There were in Baltimore City, at the commencement of 1880, 50,833 dwellings, and 332,313 inhabitants; making a population of 6.54 persons per dwelling. Up to the close of 1884 7,922 new buildings were erected, making a total of 58,755 dwellings. The estimated population of the City in 1885, according to the police census, was as follows: White voters, 71,154; colored voters, 12,290; total, 83,444; multiply by 4½ for full population, gives 375,498, making a proportion of 6.39 persons per dwelling, being a trifle less dense than it was in 1880. These facts prove that the increase of houses from 1880 to 1885 was about proportionate to the wants of the increasing population.

In 1884 the permits granted for new buildings in Baltimore were 2,526; the buildings assessed numbered 1,723,

or about 32 per cent. less than the permits granted.* The permits granted for six months of 1885 numbered 1,680, which, less 32 per cent., gives 1,143 buildings erected; double these figures, to give the proportion of new buildings for the entire year, and we have 2,286 new buildings for the year 1885, or 563 houses additional to the work of 1884.

Table Showing the Relative Density of Population per House of Twelve Cities of the United States.

NAME.	No. of Dwellings.	No. of Persons.	NAME.	No. of Dwellings.	No. of Persons.
Boston, Mass.	43,944	8.26	Holyoke, Mass.	2,084	10.52
Brooklyn, N. Y.	62,233	9.11	Jersey City, N. J.	14,049	8.59
Chicago, Ill.	61,069	8.24	Lawrence, Mass.	4,608	8.50
Cincinnati, O.	28,017	9.11	Manchester, N. H.	3,589	9.09
Fall River, Mass.	5,594	8.75	New York, N. Y.	73,684	16.37
Hoboken, N. J.	2,695	11.50	Baltimore, Md.	50,833	6.54

It will be seen from this table, that of twelve cities in the older states of the Union, the density of population per house, is the least in the City of Baltimore; and, allowing 6.54 to be the normal average, it follows that we have built, during 1885, upwards of 500 more houses than are required to supply the increased population.

When we add to this remarkable industry the large number of buildings erected in the environs of Baltimore, and the general activity throughout the State, we expect to find that mechanics working in the building trades received full employment and proportionately good wages, and where this is not the case, it is because machinery, or an influx of inexperienced cheap labor from some other trade has invaded the field of that special industry.

* As this report was written prior to the close of 1885, the actual figures for the entire year could not be ascertained, but the calculation is sufficiently correct to serve the purpose of illustrating the increased energy in this trade.

BRICK AND TILE MANUFACTURE.

There are 80 establishments in Maryland, 61 of which are in the vicinity of Baltimore. They manufacture a very fine grade of bricks and terra-cotta ornament. They employ fully 5,000 hands.

The working season in the brick fields is from April to November, or about 31 weeks. Work is suspended on wet days, and the lost time from this cause reduces the time to about five days per week, giving an average season of 155 days per annum. The average amount of wages paid is \$211.27 per individual employed. (a) During the winter months brickfield hands find employment in other occupations, many of them working as raw oyster shuckers. There are three months in the year when employment can be procured digging clay, the weather allowing about three days work per week. A space, 16 feet long, 4 feet wide, and 1 foot deep makes 1,000 brick; men can dig from five to ten thousand per day; they receive from 15 to 20 cents per thousand.

This labor is very arduous, especially when the ground is frozen. About one week's work can be procured guttering and preparing floors, at a wage of \$1.25 per day.

Machines, which make the lower grades of brick, have seriously injured hand labor in this trade. Brickmakers work by the task, making 2,680 bricks per day. They commence work very early in the morning, and generally finish about 2 o'clock, P. M. A very large proportion of this labor is colored.

In moulding pressed brick, 2,400 is a day's task. Hands who make fire bricks, gas retorts, stove linings, etc., are principally employed at North East, Cecil county; Mount Savage, Alleghany county; and Baltimore City. Patternmakers receive \$2.75 per day, and kiln setters, \$2.50 per day. The general run of hands may be classed as "labor," the average wages being \$1.63 per day.

(a) The subdivisions of this and the following trades, with wages paid in each, will be found in the wages table, Chapter IV.

There has not been any variation in brick-makers' wages. Fire brick establishments, doing their work indoors, as a rule work all the year round. The brickmakers are very thoroughly organized in four unions. (b)

QUARRIES—STONE, MARBLE AND SLATE.

It is not my intention, indeed it is not the province of this report, to enlarge on the variety and beauty of the building stones which are quarried in Maryland, further than to note the almost boundless resources which lie at the disposal of our industry. Nearly one-half the area of the State is composed of rocks which are serviceable for building purposes, convenient to procure and transport. The varieties are principally the white marbles of Cockeysville and Texas, Baltimore county; the massive "green serpentine" marble, procured near Dublin, Harford county, which industry is being rapidly developed; the variegated Potomac or "calico" marble, quarried near Frederick; the dark, grey gneiss, extensively quarried at Port Deposit, Cecil county, chiefly used for heavy masonry; the granite procured at Granite Postoffice and along the line of Jones' Falls, in Baltimore county, and that which is quarried at the noted Woodstock quarries, in Howard county; the limestone at Hagerstown and lying along Wills' creek at Cumberland, and the slate quarried at Peach Bottom, Harford county.

Some of the finest buildings in the country are constructed of Maryland stone. The Washington monument and the platform and columns of the National Capitol are made of the white marble. This stone lies in such a mass that it is capable of being cut into huge blocks, 28 feet by 10 feet by 3 feet having been there quarried. The Baltimore City Hall is constructed of this material. The columns of the old Hall of Representatives at the Capitol building in Washington are cut in "calico" marble, quarried at Point of Rocks. Of

(b) At the opening of the season of 1886 brickmakers asked an increase of 30 cents per hundred.

the granite of Maryland is constructed the Baltimore jail and United States Courthouse. It has been used on the Safe Deposit building in that city, also on the Baltimore and Ohio railroad offices; on the public buildings in Washington, and numerous others in use for collegiate and commercial purposes, and it has also been extensively used on all the principal bridges in Philadelphia and Baltimore.

There are a number of quarries undeveloped, from which some stone has been taken, and which have been afterwards closed, and others whose products are used for local purposes, for curbing, road work, etc. The principal quarries in State are: of granite five, (including the Woodstock quarries), one in Baltimore county, and two in Cecil county. Marble and limestone include the quarries at Cockeysville and Texas, Baltimore county, and two in Washington county. Slate, seven in Harford county, near the Pennsylvania line, and one in Frederick county.

These quarries employ about 850 men, principally laborers. In some the drilling is done by machinery, and machines are used for hoisting and dressing, but the principal part of the work is done by manual labor. In the quarries around Baltimore Italian and Negro labor is being introduced; it is a cheaper class of labor, and the Italian labor may be regarded as experienced. There has been an active demand for stone during the last two years. Large contracts for marble have made the trade busy; indeed there has been a good market for all kinds of stone.

Hands employed in a quarry work about nine months in the year. A boss, who superintends the drilling, will receive from \$2 to \$2.50 per day; drill hands, \$1.50; labor, \$1.15; teamsters, \$1.25. I found colored men working for \$1 per day, and there is a tendency to cut prices in this work. Hands live for the most part in the neighborhood of their work and are poor.

BRICK AND STONEMASONS AND STONE AND
MARBLE-CUTTERS.

I estimate the number of hands employed in these kindred trades to be 2,480. It is difficult to ascertain the exact number because of the constant movement which takes place. The following division, however, will be proportionate: Brick and stonemasons, 1,300; marble and stonecutters 1,080. Of these the Baltimore Brickmasons' Union numbers 650 men, and the Granitecutters' Union 150 men. The stonemasons* are not organized, and the marble and free-stone cutters have a small union in Baltimore and vicinity.

According to the United States Census Reports there were in 1880 655 brick and stonemasons employed. The total wages received were \$266,889, or an average wage per man of \$407.46 per annum. The average earnings of brickmasons in Maryland are \$776, and of stonemasons \$679 per annum. This shows an advance of receipts for brickmasons, per annum, beyond 1880 of 91 per cent. This appears (allowing the figures of the United States Census to be correct) to be an extraordinary advance in earnings in this branch; but when we consider that in the city of Baltimore for the year 1879 (the census year) there were only 868 new buildings assessed, and in 1884 there were 1,723, or nearly twice the number built in 1879, and that the number of brickmasons employed in Baltimore in 1884 was about 700, the advance is accounted for by the fact that twice the work was done by about the same number of hands, thus nearly doubling the number of actual working days in that year.

BRICKMASONs.

In this particular industry the State of Maryland has been long distinguished, as furnishing some of the best skilled mechanics, and many of the magnificent buildings recently erected, bear testimony that the brickmasons have not forgotten their art or lost their cunning. There has been a

* Since the presentation of this report to the Legislature the stonemasons organized a union numbering 150 men in April, 1886.

demand for labor in this trade, and hands have been paid as high as \$5 per day. The general wages is \$3.50 per day; that is to say, the majority of men make that price; those who secure "front" work receiving \$4 and \$5. Men working on common work can lay 1,200 to 1,500 bricks per day; men on front work 200 to 250 per day. Brickmasons can make 208 days in the year; they are governed altogether by the condition of the weather. They work ten hours per day. Non-union hands work under special contract between employer and employee, and prices vary considerably, ranging from \$1.75 to \$3 per day. There is a mutual relief association in connection with the union which pays death benefits.*

HOD-CARRIERS.

Ninety per cent. of hod-carriers are colored. They number about 600 in Baltimore, and are a thoroughly organized body of labor. No hod-carrier can work on a building with members of their union, except he has a card certifying to his good standing. They are exceedingly strict in the observance of their rules, and it is mainly owing to this that they have maintained the standard of their wages.

That the work is laborious, and the wages well earned, is evident, when we reflect that a loaded hod weighs 125 pounds, and they work ten hours per day. They earn \$2.50 per day, and work the same number of days that the brickmasons are employed. This occupation is classed with labor, but becomes important when organized in a large body, as in Baltimore City.

STONEMASONS.

Masons who build the rough stone work of foundations, bridges, etc., receive \$3 per day. There are some expert hands, working on finer work, such as churches and public buildings, etc., who receive \$3.50 per day.

* The Bricklayers' Union have determined to work nine hours for a day's work after the 1st of May, 1886.

Ten hours is considered a day's work, except on Saturday, when they work nine hours. On some large contracts expert hands set the front stone, and it is backed up and filled in by handy laborers, who receive from \$1.50 to \$2 per day. These men are very often classed as masons, but they are not so considered by the trade. Laborers who wheel stone and carry mortar receive from \$1.50 to \$1.75 per day.

Both stone-cutters and masons are somewhat migratory in their habits. The number employed in the State varies by seasons, according to work. In 1885 all resident hands were employed. Workmen from other states and quite a number of Scotch and English mechanics found work.

GRANITE-CUTTERS.

Granite-cutters are principally employed in Baltimore City, Port Deposit, and at the Woodstock quarries. Wages show an upward tendency. In 1882 the rate of wages was \$3 per day. Prior to May, 1884, the rate was \$3.25. At that date wages advanced to \$3.50 per day, which is the present rate.

Union hands work according to an elaborate scale of prices when they are engaged on piece work; the scale is so graded as to about equal the rate of wages per day. Ten hours is a day's work, except on Saturday, when they work eight hours; that is, they work 58 hours for \$21 wages. They can work about 208 days in the year. Carvers work nine hours per day, and earn \$4 per day.

The men express great opposition to the Government contract system. They claim that under that system the contractor secures the major portion of the profits, to the injury of the workmen and without any compensating benefit, in the quality of the work, to the Government; and that on Government contracts their wages have been cut to 35 cents per hour, whereas they formerly received 45 cents. Under the contract system the granite-cutter takes all risk in working the stone. General work was brisk during 1884; it fell off a trifle in the fall of the year, but was reported "fair" in 1885.

The class of building now fashionable for house fronts does not afford much work for granitecutters, and tends to lessen the demand for labor. Under Union rules three apprentices are allowed to each yard; they serve a three years' term, receiving from \$4 to \$6 per week, according to length of service.

This trade is strongly organized in the "Granite-cutters' National Union of the United States of America." In the preamble to their constitution they express themselves as follows—

"There is not, there cannot be, any good reason why our employers should not pay us a fair price for our labor. If the profits of their business are not sufficient to remunerate them for the trouble of doing business, let the consumer make up the balance. The stereotyped argument of our employers, in every attempt to reduce wages, is, that their large expenses and small profits will not warrant the present prices for labor; therefore those just able to live now must be content with less hereafter.

"In answer, we maintain that the expenses are not unreasonable and the profits are large and, in the aggregate, great. There is no good reason why we should not receive a fair equivalent for our labor. A small reduction seriously diminishes the scanty means of the operative, and puts a large sum in the employer's pocket." — "To raise ourselves to that condition in society to which we, as mechanics, are justly entitled, and to place ourselves on a foundation sufficiently strong to secure us from further encroachment, and to elevate the moral, social, and intellectual condition of every stone-worker in the country, is the object of our organization; and to the consummation of so desirable an object we, the delegates in convention assembled, do pledge ourselves to unceasing effort."

I have quoted this extract because it expresses the prevailing trade union sentiment in regard to organization and

its objects. The monthly dues of this Union are 30 cents. The Union pays a death benefit of \$100. A fund is held in the general treasury as a resource in the event of a strike. The local treasuries forward their funds to the main office, and the money is invested in the registered bonds of the United States in the name of the union. An excellent eight-page journal is published in Philadelphia by the union, for distribution among its members. The granite-cutters are an intelligent body of men, very proud of their union, and energetic in its support.

MARBLE AND FREE-STONE CUTTERS.

Baltimore supplies the bulk of the monumental work done in the State. It was a complaint of the trade that speculators imported monuments from Italy, made by very cheap labor, and which were sold at auction here, to the injury of home industry. There is not so much of this competition as formerly. The average time made is 234 working days in the year; in the large shops some good workmen are employed the year round, being engaged during winter in making up stock. Marble-cutters work principally on Italian marble, using also material that is quarried in Vermont, and Maryland stone for curbing, etc. Hands that cut mould-work receive from \$2.50 to \$3 per day. Expert carvers receive \$4 per day. Letterers are paid by the piece, the price being in proportion to the style of work; they make \$3 per day. The hours of labor are ten in the summer, and from eight to nine in the winter, the best seasons being spring and fall. Apprentices serve four years, and are paid from \$2 to \$5 per week, according to time served.

Rubbers and polishers are regarded as labor, yet there is occasion for skill and experience in their work. These hands are often very useful and handy men, and their value is appreciated; they earn from \$1.50 to \$2 per day.

Stonecutters who work in the building trade cut marble, free-stone, etc. They are also often engaged, in this State,

to set the stone. The highest price paid for this work is \$3.25 per day for nine hours work—this is the Union price. Most of the stone used in house building in Maryland is either cut in Baltimore and shipped, or is cut at the building site by Baltimore hands. Contract work for shipment to other states is done principally at the quarries. Stone cutting establishments in other towns of the State are, as a rule, small, and engaged on mortuary work. Foremen in the building trade receive from \$20 to \$30 per week, and are generally retained the year round.

The hours of labor in this branch are in some places ten. The workmen in Baltimore are employed nine hours per day, under the union rules, and eight hours on Saturday.*

SLATE ROOFERS.

This branch of the building trade is comparatively unimportant; there are very few men employed; hands are about three-quarters German and the remainder Welsh. Work lasts about six months in the year and wages are \$3 per day.

PLASTERERS.

Expert hands receive \$3 per day, which is the union rate. The trade works an average of 194 days per year. There are a number of men working for \$1.75 and \$2 per day. All hands have been very fully employed during 1884-85, but the fashion of papering the walls of new houses, which has recently prevailed, in preference to finishing them in white coat, as was customary a few years ago, has improved the paper-hanging industry to the injury of the plasterers. In this State plasterers generally do their own lathing; there are, however, about 50 lathers in Baltimore; they receive \$1 to \$1.50 per thousand, and can put on from twelve to fifteen hundred laths per day.

* During February, 1886, a strike occurred in this trade, owing to a controversy respecting wages paid for a large contract, which was being executed at Cockeysville quarries. It involved the employees of two firms, numbering about 55 men.

The Baltimore plasterers and lathers have separate local organizations. (a)

CARPENTERS AND JOINERS.

There are about 1,940 carpenters in the State of Maryland. Wages have remained the same during 1884-85. Ten hours constitute a day's work, (b) and there is an average of 234 working days in the year. Towards the close of the season carpenters are likely, because of the weather, to be put on short time. The wage rate fixed by the union is \$2.50 per day; this is the highest rate paid to carpenters.

A custom has lately come into vogue with some employers to pay by the hour, thus reducing the pay for the nine hour day to \$2.25. The majority of employers pay wages weekly. Very much of the building done in the State is done under the sub-contract system. Foremen receive \$2.75 per day; there are few apprentices in the trade.

Journeymen carpenters employed in the building trade have very little opportunity to work in the shop during unfavorable weather, or the winter months, the material for house building formerly made in the shop, such as doors, sashes, etc., being now nearly all made at the mill by machinery.

The carpenters are well organized in a union extending over the United States and Canada, known as "The Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America." The local union of the State is situated in Baltimore City; it was the first trade organization in the State to avail itself of the law of 1884, Chapter 267, (c) legalizing trade unions, and was incorporated under the provisions of that act.

The objects of the Brotherhood are declared, in the preamble to their constitution, to be "To rescue our trade from the low level to which it has fallen, and by mutual effort to

(a) The plasterers have notified employers that they will work nine hours for \$3 after May 1st. The lathers will ask \$1.75 per thousand after the 1st of May, 1886.

(b) On the 23d of February, 1886, the House Carpenters' organization resolved to reduce the hours of labor to eight per day after May 3d, 1886.

(c) See Chapter VIII., Laws "Trade Unions."

raise ourselves to that position in society to which we are justly entitled; to cultivate a feeling of friendship among the craft, and to elevate the moral, intellectual, and social condition of journeymen carpenters. It is furthermore our object to assist each other to secure employment, to furnish aid in cases of death or permanent disability, and for mutual relief and other benevolent purposes." The Brotherhood pays \$250 on the death of a member to his heirs; but not if such death is caused by his improper conduct, or by his serving as a militiaman. If the wife of a member dies the Brotherhood will allow him \$50 funeral expenses, to be deducted from his personal insurance. If a member is personally disabled he is entitled to \$100 for a six months' membership, and \$250 for a two years' membership, except such disability be caused through actual negligence or the use of alcoholic drinks. These payments are provided for by assessments on the members. The initiation fee of the union is \$4, and the dues of membership \$1.50 per quarter.

No member of the union is permitted to work on any building, or job, or in any shop, with a journeyman carpenter who is not a member of the union or of some trade organization recognizing the card of the union; nor with a member of any trade organization without a working card or certificate granted by the union, under a penalty of \$1 for each and every day. Any member of the union working in any city or place where there is a union of the craft for less rate of wages than that demanded by such union is fined for the first offence such amount as the union may determine upon, and for the second offence, or for continuing so to work after being duly notified, is expelled. The Brotherhood supports a monthly journal, printed in English and German, which circulates among the members. It is published in Cleveland, Ohio. There are no branches of the union in Maryland, except in Baltimore City.

PAPERHANGERS.

Paperhanglers were fully employed during the season of 1884-85. There was some demand for hands, and wages advanced. The Baltimore Paperhanglers' Union, which numbers about 200 members, adopted a new schedule of prices last season making an advance of two and a half cents per piece, for ordinary grades of paper. The price list for hanging is very elaborate, including 58 different grades of work, and ranging from 15 cents per piece for "white and brown blanks" to \$3 per yard for "solid relief," and from 20 cents per strip for "common borders" to \$2 for one band "lincrusta" border. Eight yards long and 18 inches wide constitutes a piece.

The average amount of paper put on by a paperhanger, exclusive of four grades, (which are paid for by the yard) is about 10 rolls per day, or twenty pieces. This is a remunerative branch of the building trade at the present time, and piece workers who are steady in their habits can earn good wages.

As, however, so much depends on the capacity and character of a piece worker, and there exists so great a variation in the prices earned, I have adopted the weekly wages as the standard of this trade, viz.: \$2.50 per day. Men so employed, are as a rule retained the year round; otherwise this trade can average 261 working days per year. There are about 230 hands employed in this industry, and it has been remarkable for the rapid development of artistic excellence.

PAINTERS—HOUSE AND SIGN.

I have found it impossible to approximate the number of painters employed in the State. Housepainting is a trade subject to violent fluctuations and affected by many causes. It is, emphatically, a poor trade to follow. Work is not thorough in the painting trade. Contracts reach the extremes in estimates, and prices are cut by, apparently, reckless competition.

The fact is, the trade is overcrowded with "green" hands (youths from varnishing furniture, and men whose chief qualification is physical strength to handle a brush). The result is that wages have been very low. During the winter of 1884-85, a very large number of hands were out of employment, and there was much distress; only the best workmen were making wages. I am satisfied, from the number of accounts submitted to me, that ordinary hands, in the housepainting trade do not average \$7 per week the year round.

A local housepainters' union exists in Baltimore city, (a) and the union price is \$2.50 per day, but they do not secure steady work. The general run of work in house-painting requires so little skill and experience, that any number of hands can be, and are, employed at \$1.50 and \$1.75 per day. Ten hours constitutes a day's work.

FRESCO PAINTERS.

Fresco painting is a higher branch of the painting trade, but, because of its artistic character, there exists a wide difference among workmen. There may be twenty-five fresco painters in the State who can be considered artists. Fresco work ranges from the ordinary ornamental house-work, up to the higher grades of decorative design. Some of the most beautiful fresco work done in the State has been executed by fresco painters who have found wider and more remunerative fields in which to exercise their art. The prices paid to the finer workmen who are engaged in this State, will not exceed \$4 per day. (b)

SIGN PAINTING AND GRAINING.

These are shop hands. Sign painters are paid by the foot, according to the character of the work. When employed

(a) In March, 1886, the Housepainters' Union amalgamated with "Hope" Assembly, No. 1466, K. of L., also composed of housepainters, and resolved to use strenuous efforts to advance the condition of journeymen painters to the standard of union wages.

(b) In February, 1886, the German fresco painters established a trade union.

by the week they receive \$3 per day; grainers, \$2.50 per day; but these hands earn more at piece work, and in Baltimore City there are hands who work from shop to shop among the smaller establishments, as their services are required.

PLUMBERS AND GASFITTERS.

In Maryland, under this head, is included steamfitting, gasfitting and plumbing. There are a number of youths employed in this trade, and machinists out of employment in their own trade often secure work at plumbing and gasfitting, especially in fitting new buildings. Almost all work is done in iron pipe, very little lead being used. Employees think that the above facts, and want of trade organization,* has had a tendency to depress wages; but I regard the condition of the trade as, comparatively, good. Plumbers in Baltimore City receive from \$1.50 to \$3 per day, and \$2.75 is the average. Hands in large establishments, employed by the week, are paid from \$7.50 to \$12.50 per week.

The rate of wages throughout the State is \$12 per week. Two hundred and thirty-four working days is the average time made by this trade per year.

Master plumbers in Baltimore City are under the supervision of the Health Department, and are required by law to register their names and places of business with the city authorities.

PLASTER MILLS.

The cement works situated in Washington county and Alleghany county employ about 135 hands. They manufacture hydraulic cement from the limestone of that region. They do not run during winter, but give steady work during nine months in the year. Coopers are paid ten cents per barrel,

* Since writing this report there has been an increased activity in the trade organizations, and the "Journeymen Plumbers' and Gasfitters' Union" has been largely reinforced. In February, 1886, the steamfitters founded an independent union.

and make an average wage of \$1.50 per day; cement millers \$2 per day; quarry hands \$1.50, and labor \$1.10 per day. Wages have remained the same during 1884-85, and labor is easily procured in that section of the State. Ten hours constitute a day's work.

CARRIAGE AND HARNESS TRADE.

Carriage, Coach and Wagonmakers.

There are employed in the different branches of this industry in the State about 1,400 hands. Work was steady for about seven months in 1884, with short time during the winter. The trade was reported generally "good" during 1885. In the blacksmith department there was some demand for forgers. Good hands are paid \$2.25 per day, second class \$1.75 per day.

Much of the material used in the fine carriage trade comes unfinished from other states, the wheelwright finishing and fitting it here. In the country trade the wheelwright often makes the body, in addition to the running-gear. Wheelwrights have steady employment; there is not a surplus of hands. The highest price paid is \$2.50 per day, but in some of the smaller towns and in the country districts wheelwrights receive very small wages. There has been a reduction of ten per cent. in Western Maryland. A correspondent in that part of the State says that wheelwrights try to average 10 hours per day by making 11 and 12 hours in summer, to 8 hours in spring; that by this plan their average daily wage is 90 cents, or \$202.50 per year. He states that he received 15 cents per hour, but is now reduced to 13½ cents. There is, therefore, a great variation in wages, which may also be said of the other branches of this trade. Body-makers are not in demand; they are paid \$2 per day. Some expert hands employed on coach work make \$18 per week. In the paint shop first-class hands are paid \$2.25 per day; second class 1.50. Quite a large number of the less skillful have been out of employment or on half time. In some

establishments, where a large quantity of work is turned out, the work in the paint shop is very much subdivided, and many boys are employed. Trimmers, who upholster the carriage, are skilled workmen—it is the highest branch of upholstering; wages range from \$8 to \$18 per week; 10 hours is a day's work. The seasons are from February to June, and from September to December, or an average of 261 working days. This trade is not organized.*

Harnessmakers.

There are about 850 hands engaged in the harness, saddle, and trunkmaking industry in the State of Maryland. Harnessmaking is a trade which, by reason of the small capital necessary to conduct a shop, affords workmen the opportunity to engage in business for themselves, and there is not a town in the State which does not support one or more such establishments. These shops, employing one or two hands, are known as "Buckeye" shops. They do general repairing, make up special orders, and execute work by hand; as a rule, however, they do not make saddles or collars.

There are quite a number of Germans so engaged. The work of these shops is generally regarded as superior to factory work. The hours of labor are usually from 7 o'clock A. M. to 6 o'clock P. M., though many small proprietors work late into the night. Journeymen in "Buckeye" shops make from \$7 to \$10 per week, and boys from \$3 to \$4 per week.

The factory-work in the harness trade is confined to Baltimore City. There are eight factories there, which manufacture a great variety of harness, but no fancy bridle-fronts, patent-leather winkers, or harness hardware are made in the State. The work in the factory is divided under the following heads: Cutters, machine-operators, riding-saddle makers, boys who stitch, color and crease leather, harness-

* The wheelwrights and wagonmakers of Baltimore City formed a trade organization (English and German) during the month of March, 1886.

makers and fitters, collar-makers and bridle-makers. The foreman is generally the cutter. A few girls have been introduced into the trade recently.

Cutters receive from \$11 to \$15 per week, machine operators from \$9 to \$13 per week; machines are worked by foot-power, none of the factories being run by steam. Saddle makers earn from \$6 to \$12 per week, a head man being sometimes paid \$15 or \$20 per week. Harnessmakers and fitters from \$9 to \$15 per week, and boys engaged in stitching, etc., from \$2.50 to \$4 per week.

There are generally four boys working with one journeyman. One factory reported employed 5 journeymen, about 20 boys, and a machine operator. In another the proportion was 12 journeymen and 36 boys. The machinery used in these factories comprises the wax-thread sewing machine, common sewing machine for light work, creasing machine, riveting machine, and stamping press for making box loops.

Work in the harnessmaking trade varies with the seasons. There are from three to four months very busy, and demanding over work, and a corresponding season of depression, when hands work three-quarter time. The busy seasons are from February until about the middle of June, and from August to Christmas. In the fall of 1884 the trade was good, and hands worked full time, but during the spring of 1885, reports from all over the State showed business to be dull, and hands working short time. Ten months' actual work in the year is a full estimate, allowing for the before mentioned variations. There have been no busy seasons during the last two years. Ten hours constitute a day's work in the factories. Wages have fallen since 1883.

Factories are situated on the upper floors, stairways are generally good, but there are no fire-escapes. Sanitary accommodations are sufficient, but hands complain that they

work very close together, and that increased light and ventilation would be an improvement in most of the shops. Very many workmen were out of employment in this trade during 1885. Country employers complain of the want of general workmen adapted to the demands of small shops. The trade is partly organized in the Knights of Labor.

Collarmakers.

There are about 60 hands employed in collarmaking in factories. Eight factories make collars in Baltimore City. There are no subdivisions of labor, each workman finishing the work from beginning to end.

The foreman is as a rule the cutter. Boys serve three years' apprenticeship, commencing the trade generally at about 17 years of age; ten hours are a day's work. Boys earn from \$2.50 to \$4.50 per week. Journeymen are paid by the dozen, prices ranging from \$1.08 to \$7 per dozen, according to the weight. When working full time they make \$12 per week. Foremen receive \$15 per week.

There has been a serious depression in this trade; work has been scarce, many men have been idle, and those employed have not made more than three-quarter time. As an illustration of this, I quote the following experience, which I believe is a fair representation of the condition of the trade. A workman making collars in a factory reports: "Up to August of 1884, I made \$16 per week; then, till November, 1884, I made \$12 per week; after that time I was placed on piece prices, and I made \$6 per week." I average the wages of collarmakers in the present condition of the trade at \$9 per week per annum.

The horse-collar workmen formerly had a local union, but owing to the stagnation in work, and other causes, it has lapsed. It was a rule of the society, which the hands yet endeavor to maintain, that not more than one boy should be employed to every four men. The factories where this

work is done are generally good for summer work, but complaints are made that they are not sufficiently heated in the winter months.

TRUNK MAKING.

This trade is not a profitable one in Maryland. Where steady employment is guaranteed for 11 months in the year, a trunk maker will work for \$7 to \$7.50 per week. Good workmen get \$1.50 per day in the busy season, and average 208 working days per year.

An apprentice of two years' standing receives \$4.50 per week. There are not over 60 hands employed, and no demand for labor. Trunks can be imported from New Jersey as cheap as they can be made by home industry. No leather valises are made in this State.*

THE CANNING INDUSTRY.

Oysters, Fruits and Vegetables.

Regarding this as by far the most important of Maryland's industries at present in operation, more especially because of the great army of workers it employs, I have carefully estimated their numbers.

In the absence, however, of the means to make a proper enumeration, the task has been difficult and uncertain. The labor is constantly changing, and the system under which work is done, makes it impossible for the majority of employers to more than estimate the number they engage during the season.

Tongers in the raw oyster season, when the grounds are frozen over, can be found in the shucking houses; and hands engaged on cove oysters in winter, drift into the fields in summer, and are partially counted in the pea, strawberry and peach pluck.

The number of employees fluctuates frequently and to a great extent, consequent on the condition of the markets.

*See Chapter VI., "Blank 434;" also "Blank 285." In February, 1886, the leather workers organized in the Knights of Labor.

In Baltimore, during the season, the arrival of a fresh supply of vegetables or fruit, requiring the work of an extra number of hands, will be announced by the shrill whistle of the packing-house engine, and the labor—men, women and children—living in the neighborhood may be seen hurrying to the task. As a consequence, at one time a firm may employ one or two hundred hands, and at another five or six hundred will be necessary to do the work, and as these hands are immediately paid by the small task, it is almost impossible to determine with exactitude the number employed. The result, therefore, of my investigation is submitted as a close approximation.

In computing the number of hands employed in tonging, scraping and dredging, I have taken the licenses issued by the several counties and State as a basis of calculation. The following is a list of the counties issuing licenses for tonging, and the number so issued during the season of 1884-85—

Kent.....	250	Dorchester.....	696	Talbot.....	457
Worcester.....	335	Queen Anne...	251	Wicomico	291
Anne Arundel..	460	Charles	663	Somerset	756
St. Mary's.....	663	Calvert..	361		

Total 5,183 licenses issued. These boats average two hands to a boat, or 10,366 hands employed in tonging for oysters.

On the Eastern Shore the scraping licenses issued for the season of 1884-85 were—

Dorchester...	510	Talbot.....	100	Somerset.....	469
Total.....			1,079		

The dredgers' licenses issued from Annapolis for the same season, were 1,308.

The boats engaged in carrying employ a smaller crew than those engaged in dredging. Estimating all the boats together at six to a boat, gives a total of 14,322 hands, or a grand total for all boats in the oyster fisheries of 24,688 men.

I estimate the whole number of hands in the canning industry, not including clerks, book-keepers, etc., and the side trade of label printing, as follows—

Fruits and vegetables.....	16,150
Raw and cove oysters.....	14,640
Tongers.....	10,366
Dredgers and scrapers.....	14,322
Measurers.....	180
Tin cannmakers and cappers....	800
<hr/>	
Total.....	56,458 hands.

The average number of hands employed in packing-houses varies with the kind of goods packed. A corn packing-house, having a capacity of 10,000 2-pound cans per day, will employ in the process of pulling, hauling, husking, cutting (when done by hand), packing, capping and processing the goods, from 50 to 60 hands, which number includes men, women and children. A tomato packing-house, having a capacity of 10,000 3-pound cans per day, would require a force of 35 to 45 hands in picking, hauling, scalding, peeling, packing, capping and processing the goods.

Corn and tomatoes are the staple articles packed in the counties, the canning of other fruits and vegetables being carried on only to a limited extent in this State outside of Baltimore City. Corn and tomatoes are frequently put up in the same house, running one day on corn and another on tomatoes.

Louis McMurray & Co.'s packing-house, located at Frederick, Md., is the largest corn packing establishment in the United States, and it may be said in the world, as corn is only packed in this country.

That establishment has a capacity of 75,000 cans per day. The wages paid for pulling corn in the field is from \$1 to \$1.50 per hand per day; for husking, 2 to 3 cents per basket of 56 pounds; for cutting (when done by hand), 3

cents per bucket (the ordinary water bucket being used). The processing costs for labor \$1.25 and \$2 per day, and the capping, 8 to 10 cents per 100 cans.

Prior to about 1875 the packing of corn and tomatoes was confined exclusively to the city of Baltimore and some few of the towns of the State. About that time Mr. Geo. W. Baker, of Aberdeen, Harford county, commenced as an experiment the canning of corn in a small way. It proved a success, others soon followed, and to-day Harford county packed corn has a world-wide reputation, and finds ready sale in all the principal markets. Mr. Baker is regarded as the pioneer of the country canning industry. Harford county contains the largest number of packing houses of any county in the United States.

In the year 1882, at which time the canning industry of this State was at its height, this county alone packed over 1,600,000 cases, or an aggregate of 38,400,000 cans of hermetically sealed goods. The pack was distributed as follows—

Tomatoes.....	1,000,000	cases, or	24,000,000	cans.
Sugar corn.....	500,000	"	12,000,000	"
Miscellaneous....	100,000	"	2,400,000	"

This was the product of 300 factories, giving employment to about 16,000 persons.

The raw material to produce the 1,500,000 or 36,000,000 cans of tomatoes and corn alone, required the product of 10,000 acres of tomatoes and 5,000 acres of sugar corn, involving an outlay for agricultural labor of \$200,000. One hundred and thirty thousand boxes of tin were consumed in making this 36,000,000 cans, requiring an outlay of \$135,000 for labor, while preparing the goods for shipment, etc., necessitated a further outlay of \$900,000.

Since the year 1882, at which time the above statement was taken, many of the houses that so sprung into existence have as suddenly died. There are, of course, many

permanent, wealthy establishments, conducting an extensive business, and employing a large force of labor, but great numbers of the smaller ones have gone down, the mania for packing having brought disaster to many who then engaged in it.

Farmers were tempted to cultivate small fruits and vegetables, to procure a canning outfit and engage in packing on their own farms. They bought their goods and procured their labor, under those circumstances, at a disadvantage. Their land, by the growth of special crops, became impoverished, and required a considerable expenditure in fertilizers. Their products were placed on the market at prices regulated by larger establishments, and their limited capital, making sales compulsory, business failure was the result. Further, there has been a decline in the price of packed goods. I think it is within the limit to say that between the prices for 1881 and those of 1885, tomatoes have fallen 38 per cent.; corn, 30 per cent.; peaches, 46 per cent.; and peas, 18 per cent. These are some of the exigencies of the conduct of the business.

Many farmers yet hold their packing outfit, and it is the opinion of some persons interested in this trade that with a rising market many of these would again engage in packing. The introduction of improved labor-saving machinery in the corn-packing trade has a tendency to increase the number of country packers, as it dispenses with a large force of manual labor, which is not so readily obtained outside the cities. Prior to 1884 the cutting of the corn from the cob was done entirely by hand. About that time the "Warfield corn-cutting machine" was perfected, and in 1885 about 35 of these machines were used in this State, with the prospect of their number being largely increased in 1886.

One of these machines has a capacity of 8,000 to 10,000 cans of corn per day, is run by steam, and apart from an

improvement in the quality of the corn adds largely to the weight saved per acre. This machine was invented and is manufactured in Baltimore City, and is said to be coming into use in corn-packing establishments very rapidly. Such being the case, it must, evidently, throw a large body of labor out of this employment in the near future.

There is no state in the union which affords better natural facilities for the prosecution of the packing industry than the State of Maryland. We enjoy advantages both in soil and climate, for the cultivation of fruit and vegetables. The counties principally engaged in raising these crops border on the waterways, and can ship their products to an advantage; while the Chesapeake bay and its tributaries, though suffering from the constant drain to which the oyster beds have been exposed, yet furnished during the dull season of 1884-85, between eight and nine million bushels of oysters, the City of Baltimore taking 6,273,110 bushels and 16,000 barrels of that number.

Like most other industries, however, the packing trade passed through a dull season in 1884-85, especially in the oyster trade. Complaints were very general, and many establishments worked a reduced force of labor.

Fruits and Vegetables.

The season for packing commences in May and continues until September. It includes about 100 days. Fruits are packed in the following order—

Early June peas,	Marrowfat peas,	Tomatoes,
Pineapples,	Raspberries,	Peaches,
Strawberries,	Whortleberries,	Pears,
Gooseberries,	Blackberries,	Apples,
String beans,	Greengages,	Lima beans,
Cherries,	Damsons,	Corn.

The labor employed in the preparation of fruits and vegetables is of the most heterogenous character. Black and

white, foreign and native, from the infant to the grey-haired adult. Entering the packing-house in the season, hundreds of busy workers can be seen, seated on plank seats, raised a few inches from the ground, men, women, and children intermixed, some laughing and singing, some intent on their task, swaying their bodies in unison with the rapid movements of their hands. Women, with their infants at the breast, nursing their offspring while hulling peas for their own living. Children, three years old and upward, training their tender fingers to the labor which is their share of the family toil. Mothers bring their whole families to the packing-house, and the baby often slumbers in the pea hulls while the older members work. Fully two-thirds of the labor in the packing trade are Bohemians, the remainder blacks and whites—one-half being child-labor.

The Bohemians have the reputation of being the hardest working people employed. They will work twenty out of the twenty-four hours if permitted. A greater percentage of this nationality can be found in the Baltimore packing-houses during the "cove" oyster season than during the fruit season, the reason being that a large proportion go into the country as pickers during the fruit crop, leaving their places to be filled with other labor.

These are veritable summer excursions to them. The whole family goes together. Gathered in groups on the deck of a puny for a voyage down the bay to some farm in one of the lower counties, generally supplied with a keg or two of beer and a fiddle. Or, disposed in a great country wagon, with a four-horse team to take them into the interior of the State, they appear to fully appreciate and enjoy the opportunity of escape from the restraints of city life, and, taken all in all, the measure of happiness of this people seems to me to be as nearly proportionate to their conceptions as the majority of us attain to.

Very many Bohemians land in Baltimore with the intention of going west, but their funds being exhausted, they find employment in the packing-houses. It is not unusual for a number of families to occupy one house, and sometimes two families a room;* but as all the members work, and as their wants are of the most meagre kind, they save money and in time secure homes. As a rule, they eat meat once a day, but coffee and bread is their principal staple of food, which they supplement with the oysters and fruits they are engaged in packing. Packers expect to lose in this way a proportion of any new fruit during the early days of the season.

* Extract from the Annual Report of the Health Department of the City of Baltimore for 1884—

"The following table shows the number of houses containing three families and over in the respective police districts—

POLICE DISTRICTS.	Total number of houses.	Total number of rooms in houses.	Total number of families in houses.	Total number of occupants.
Eastern District.....	341	2,889	1,366	5,117
Northeastern District.....	124	1,007	392	1,411
Central District.....	132	1,473	558	1,818
Western District.....	85	710	342	951
Northwestern District.....	62	531	213	742
Southern District.....	393	2,682	969	3,798
Southwestern District.....	75	744	282	1,001
Grand total.....	1,122	10,041	4,122	14,838

Average number of families in each house..... $3\frac{4}{5}2\frac{8}{1}$

" " members " family..... $3\frac{1}{2}2\frac{3}{6}1$

Greatest number of families in any one house..... 16

" " inmates " " 72

"The reason for giving in detail the above is to show the necessity for the enactment of laws that will place buildings used as tenements or lodging houses under the direction of the Health Department, so as to prevent overcrowding, and the consequent insanitary conditions from this and other causes that are detrimental to the health of the inmates.

"One-third of these houses were reported as dirty or filthy. It will be seen from this report that the number of people living in tenements is great, and when it is understood that nine-tenths of the houses or buildings occupied for this purpose are wholly unfit, the necessity for legal sanitary surveillance becomes apparent."

It is said in the trade that quite a number of the colored hands who are engaged during fruit season work as servants in the winter.

The hours of labor vary according to the supply of goods to be packed. Oftentimes work will commence at 4 o'clock in the morning and continue until it is too dark to see to work, but the general rule may be considered as from 6 A. M. to 6 P. M. All the work is paid for by the piece, and prices are as follows—

Wages.

In arriving at the wages paid great difficulty is experienced, because of the diversity of skill among the workers and the variety of sex and age; also because of the varying time worked per day. This estimate is based on a day of 12 hours, and the labor of an active, expert woman. The prices quoted, therefore, are the highest made—

Early June Peas.—6 cents per 1 gallon pot, 20 pots per day. Season, 6 weeks.

Pine Apples.—Peeling, 3 cents per dozen, 36 dozen per day. Season, 15 days. Packing fruit, 10 cents per hour.

Strawberries.—5 cents for 4 boxes, 80 boxes per day. Season, 10 days.

Gooseberries.—10 cents per hour. Season, 10 days.

String Beans.—6 cents for 2½ gallon-bucket, 16 buckets per day. Season, 30 days,

Cherries.—10 cents per hour. Season, 18 days.

Marrowfat Peas.—5 cents per 1 gallon pot, 24 pots per day. Season, 4 weeks.

Raspberries.—10 cents per hour. Season, 15 days.

Whortleberries.—10 cents per hour. Season, 15 days.

Blackberries.—10 cents per hour. Season, 30 days.

Greengages.—10 cents per hour. Season, 15 days.

Damsons.—10 cents per hour. Season, 15 days.

Tomatoes.—5 cents per 2½ gallon bucket, 28 buckets per day. Packers, 10 cents per hour. Season, 60 days.

Peaches.—Peeling and seeding, 25 cents per box, 6 boxes per day. Packers, 10 cents per hour. Season, 40 days.

Pears.—Peeling, 25 cents per box, 6 boxes per day. Packers, 10 cents per hour. Season 20 days.

Apples.—Peeling, 20 cents per box, 6 boxes per day. Packers, 10 cents per hour. Season 20 days.

Wages are paid in the packing-house directly the work is done. Thus, in hulling peas, when the woman has filled her measure, she takes it to a foreman who receives the peas and pays her five cents. Allowing that the woman works steadily all the season on all the crops, receives full work and has a fair share of tomatoes and peaches, which are regarded as “phat” work, *she can* make at the rates quoted, \$7 per week. There are, however, many contingencies to be considered.

I have met with one instance where a woman made \$1.40 in a day hulling peas at five cents per gallon. It was an exception, and also a long day; such work could not be continued. Rapid work is exceedingly hurtful to the hands. An idea of wages can be easily formed on reflecting that a woman would have to fill 20 gallon measures with green peas to earn \$1. As the result of a great number of personal interviews with hands working in the packing trade, I am convinced that the average wages for the generality of labor is \$4.50 per week; still it is a class of work in which young and old being engaged a family can earn a modest livelihood.

The entire season for fruits and vegetables is about one hundred days. The seasons given for each article specified exceed that time in the aggregate, but the season for one kind of fruit overlaps another, and, therefore, different varieties of fruit are being packed at the same time, as, for example, early June peas and strawberries, marrowfat peas and raspberries, etc.

Processor.

This hand receives \$3.50 per day and works an average time of 261 days per year. Helpers receive \$1.50 per day.

Capper.

In houses which employ cappers by the year, to cap fruit and oysters, hands are paid \$1.75 to \$2 per day; average time 261 working days. When employed by the piece they receive from 10 to 25 cents per hundred cans, according to size of hole.

Varnishers.

These hands lacquer the cans; wages \$1.25 per day; average time, 261 days per year,

Labellers.

Girls employed in labelling the cans are paid 10 cents per hour. Average time, 287 days per year. Average earnings per week, per annum, \$5. When paid by the piece they receive from 20 cents to 33 cents per thousand cans, according to size, the result in wages being about the same.

The packing-houses of Baltimore City have a capacity to pack 40,000 bushels of peas per day, and 100,000 bushels of tomatoes, each bushel yielding 13 cans. The pack of fruit and vegetables in Baltimore for 1885 will be within 50,000,000 cans, and the pack of the entire State will fall fully 20 per cent. below that of 1884, though there has been an improvement in peas and corn.

There is a limited quantity of small fruits packed, the principal articles being tomatoes, peaches, peas, beans and corn. The packing trade is regulated by law. The fruit and vegetable supply is grown in Maryland, except pineapples and greengages; the latter are principally grown in New York State.

Cove Oysters.

The demand for labor depends entirely on the oyster supply, and that the supply is variable, may be illustrated by the fact, that during the season of 1884-85, oysters varied from 18 cents to \$1 per bushel, wholesale, in the City of Baltimore. Oysters are measured from the vessel in a round tub, the standard being regulated by law, and the measurement being supervised by inspectors appointed for the State.

The oysters are steamed in iron cages, which run on tramways, and the shuckers stand on either side of the long rows of these cages in the oyster house and shuck the oysters into tin cans. The shuckers work in gangs of about eight persons—men, women and children.

In busy seasons they can be seen before daylight, waiting at the door of the packinghouse to commence work. The oyster shuckers are a very hard working, good-tempered—not very clean—community; their morals are not very strict, if their conversation is a criterion, and the standard of intelligence is certainly low. Their ages range from 12 years up to old men and women. They receive in most houses five cents per can, in others six cents for $4\frac{1}{2}$ pounds. They will average 70 cents per day wages. 2,746,669 bushels of "Cove" oysters were packed in the State during the season of 1884-85.

Raw Oysters.

Raw oyster shuckers are about equally divided, male and female, black and white. They work at raised tables, very often on the second floor, shutes being arranged at each table to convey the shells.

Men can shuck more than women, though some of the latter are very expert, and, in the opinion of some employers, do better work. They are paid 20 cents per gallon for shucking raw oysters, and a good male shucker, working 12 hours, can make \$2.80 per day, but during the entire season (which runs from the middle of October to

March), they did not in 1884-85 average more than \$6.50 per week. An expert hand can shuck 13 gallons in 10 hours. They complain that the measures used in Baltimore houses contain more than one gallon, and that they are compelled in some places to shuck 11 pints dry measure. (a) A reduction of the price from 20 cents to 15 cents resulted in a strike among the Annapolis shuckers. (b)

The trade suffered during the season of 1884-85 from the general depression; from scarcity of supply; and in the Eastern shore counties from a disturbance in railroad freights, resulting from a demand of the railroad companies, that packers should guarantee them against loss, consequent upon the spoiling of the goods in transit. A discrimination in freight between Norfolk, Va., and Crisfield, Md., against Crisfield, was also claimed to have seriously injured the trade of that city. A further cause is said in Baltimore to be the time boats now take to procure a cargo. Formerly a boat could make a trip in about six days, now the average time is three weeks.

Oyster packers say that so poor a season has not been known in the trade. The season of 1885-86 opens with improved prospects. During October and November, 2,000,000 bushels were brought to Baltimore as against 1,598,240 bushels in the corresponding time last season. Raw oyster shuckers only work as the orders are received. Shipping oysters in "bulk" has deprived labor of a means of winter support; the effect on the square can makers is referred to in the report of that industry. Oysters shipped from this State in the bulk are packed in the West to the advantage, both in advertisement and measurement of the Western dealer.

(a) An Act of 1886 provides for a 9-pint, wine measure, properly inspected and stamped. The Baltimore shuckers, in a meeting of their union (organized March, 1886), resolved to endorse this measure as a compromise between the present large measure and the 8-pint measure, which they claim is the only proper standard.

(b) See Chapter VI., "Oyster Shuckers."

OYSTER DREDGERS.

The oyster dredgers of Maryland are the most ill-conditioned body of labor I have met with in the course of this inquiry. It is labor that has no home, no money—scarcely clothes. It is poor and beggarly, exposed to cold and hardship without restraint or protection of law. No one who has become acquainted with the characteristics of the oyster dredger can fail to recognize him. I have seen him in the jail, on the streets, and tramping on the country roads. The man who has been dredging for oysters "down the bay" is a dilapidated specimen. A battered waterproof hat, as a rule, covers his head, and every description of ragged clothing his body. The hair is uncombed, the face (partly covered by a rough growth of beard) is a purple-red, swollen, and the skin peeling from exposure and frost; he seems indifferent to sanitary laws; he has the appearance of never undressing or washing, and, in numerous instances, suffers from sores and disease.

I do not hesitate to say, that in the matter of personal comfort, he is never in so good a condition as when subject to the regulations of Baltimore City jail. There he is, at least, kept clean and warm, is properly fed, and prohibited from the use of liquor. These men come from all parts of the country, and are of every nationality. I have met some intelligent men among them; some who have been thrown into the occupation by the accident of circumstances, but the general rule is that they are driven into the cities by stress of weather at the opening of the oyster season, and necessity compels them to find employment on the boats. At that season of the year, when the cold nights make out-door life uncomfortable, on any of the main roads leading to the City of Baltimore, these men, single and in groups, can be seen coming in from the country. This immigration of irresponsible labor numbers every season

between four and five thousand men. They drift away in the summer time and return in the winter months.

There are men who follow the business of shipping-agents for the oyster boats, who gather up this labor; who wait for it outside the jails, or pick it up on the streets, or "shanghai" it, if the demands of the trade prompt them to so summary and violent a method. They take these men to rooms, provided with a stove, and the men lie around smoking, sleeping, and drinking cheap whiskey until the agent ships them on some oyster vessel. The shipping-agent receives for his services in securing a crew the sum of \$2 per head, which is paid by the captain and afterwards deducted from the wages of the hand. Thus, it will be seen, these men are shipped without inspection. Nothing whatever is known about them; where they came from; who they are; not even their name is the subject of inquiry. Totally irresponsible men engaging equally irresponsible labor by hundreds in the season—sending them on a voyage full of danger and uncertainty, on which they are subject to casualties involving hospital expense, or to be lost overboard, unnoticed, and so pass out of sight and knowledge as completely as though they had never existed.

In the matter of clothing they are, of course, dependent on the captain with whom they ship, and are constantly obliged to pledge their wages in advance for the possession of oil coats, hats or boots. It hardly need be suggested that they do this at a disadvantage, and what with the shipping charge, clothes, whiskey, etc., a very small sum, if any, is realized by them at the end of a cruise. How the men are fed depends entirely on the captain's disposition; some of the hands who were interviewed by this office, reported favorably and others complained.*

* See tables of food-prices. Oyster-boat supplies. Chapter V.

The great majority of men employed in the oyster trade are such as I have described. There are some few resident hands who engage in the work of dredging for a share of the profits.

I now submit a synopsis of the fatalities and injuries which came to the public notice during the season of 1884-85. It is not a complete list, there not being space in this report. The life is one of great hardship and suffering, and the absence of supervision prevents any but the extreme cases coming to light. We are much indebted to the sympathy and enterprise of our newspaper press for information given to the public in this direction. I have also to thank the medical faculty in charge of the City and Marine hospitals for courtesies extended to me in this investigation.

As an illustration of the number of cases attended at St. Joseph's (Marine) hospital, Baltimore City, and whose treatment was paid for by the Government, at the rate of 70 cents per day, it may be noted that out of 95 sailors in the Marine ward during the month of January, 1885, 70 of the number were oystermen.

Synopsis of Cases.

December, 1885—

Joseph Good.—Colored; found by Officer Reifuer, Eastern district, Baltimore City police, on Miller's wharf Wolfe Street, in a helpless condition; said he had been down the bay, and was stricken with paralysis; came from Virginia; was sent to Bay View Asylum.

Bernard Becker.—Thirty years of age; treated at the University Hospital for large ulcer, six inches long and three and one-half inches broad, on the left arm. Gangrene had set in; said it was the result of a beating received on oyster pungy; came from Washington, D. C.

Benedict Beck.—Treated at the University hospital for large ulcer on the right arm. Deposed before Justice Wiener, that said ulcer was caused by a severe beating received at the hands of a captain while oystering in Chesapeake bay. Came from New York; native of Bavaria. Died of lock-jaw.

Otto Meyer.—Hand on oyster schooner "Eva." While sick and feeble was brutally beaten and ill treated by the captain (John Williams), and ultimately killed and thrown overboard. Williams was placed on trial—convicted of murder in the second degree.

January, 1885—

John T. Jolly.—Colored; drowned January 6th in the Choptank river.

John Sheets.—German; sought lodging at Annapolis jail; suffering from frost-bitten feet; came from Philadelphia.

Fred. Peterson.—Colored; admitted to Annapolis jail suffering from frost-bite.

John Folcy.—Treated in Baltimore City hospital; fracture of lower jaw, caused, while dredging, by handle of crank slipping and striking him; said captain gave him \$2 and discharged him. Came from Philadelphia; two months resident of Baltimore; discharged cured.

John Hood.—Dredger; received at St. Joseph's hospital; could not walk; had a starved appearance; said that for four weeks he had not enough to eat, and was beaten and overworked. Had ulcers on both feet, and the tips of his fingers and toes were frost-bitten (toe was amputated in hospital), and sloughed off; 21 years old; native place Washington, D. C.

Herbert Lent.—Native of Canada; received in St. Joseph's hospital. Fingers swollen from wounds known as the "oyster shell hand;" finger ampu-

tated. Parents seeing his case in newspaper wrote to the hospital physician; patient deserted April 11. *Henry Germany*.—Received in St. Joseph's hospital; injured by jib-boom of vessel striking him.

John Egan.—Drowned off Swann's Point while hoisting dredge; came from Brooklyn, N. Y.

February, 1885—

James McMannus.—Dredger; admitted to St. Joseph's hospital; cut on head and hands, arms and legs badly mutilated by crank-handle of schooner's dredge; confined four weeks.

Henry Myers.—Admitted to St. Joseph's hospital; oyster shell hand.

March—

Shorty, Pat and Harry.—Three Irishmen, dredgers, names unknown; drowned at Castle Haven.

A Polander.—Landed at Annapolis; could not give any account of himself; had evidently been beaten and cut; was shipped on a pungy to Baltimore.

Gilbert Landreth.—Dredger; frozen to death on Hooper's Island. This was a case resulting from intoxication.

My intercourse with a number of captains leads me to state that I believe a majority would be willing and glad to co-operate in any plan which could be devised to better the condition of the labor engaged in the oyster fisheries. The statement of the facts contained in this report is not to be regarded as an arraignment of the captains generally. That there are bad men capable of committing outrages, such as those cited, is not a good reason for the condemnation of all. A captain on the Chesapeake bay on a dark night in a gale of wind with a crew who refuse to shorten sail, occupies anything but an enviable position, and while barbarities are not justified by any circumstances, yet captains have very much to contend with in controlling the class of labor they employ.

The principal cause of the unfortunate condition of the oyster dredgers is to be found in the absolute irresponsibility to law of those who employ them. Such a system of supervision and registration as would insure the early discovery of all cases of unnecessary hardship and cruelty, and present the same to the authorities and public, would be of great advantage to the labor, and tend to ameliorate its condition.

The guarantee to them of the full benefit of their wages, and their proper payment according to contract; providing adequate clothing at a fair price; securing sufficient wholesome food while working, and as prompt medical attendance as possible in case of sickness or accident: These requirements would compel a more careful selection of hands on the part of the shippers, and secure a better class of labor to this industry.

The reputation oyster-dredging now has causes labor to avoid it, except as a last resource, and during the season of 1884-85 considerable difficulty was experienced in securing hands, the consequence being that anything in the shape of a man was employed, numbers being physically incapable of withstanding the hardships, and ignorant of the duties they were engaged to perform. In my judgment legal protection would be as advantageous to employers as to the employed.

TIN CANMAKERS.

Comparatively few cans are made outside of Baltimore City; indeed, many cans manufactured in Baltimore are packed in other states.

During 1884 the trade employed 475 men, the force being increased during the busy season to about 782. These hands manufactured about 14,076,000 cans at 35 to 40 cents per hundred, and 38,241,000 cans at 20 to 30 cents per hundred.

The amount of wages paid for making the same, *i. e.*,

cannmakers' wages proper, was about \$141,678, or 27 cents per hundred cans for all. This estimate is for making round cans, numbers 1, 2 and 3 sizes. There are few men who can make 900 cans per day; the average will range from 500 to 600. The average wages for round cannmakers in 1883 was \$326, and for 1884 \$260, being a decrease of \$66 per man per year. During 1885 there was a constant change in the price of wages, and it was difficult to keep a close account of the effect it produced on the trade. The rate per hundred cans altered three times during the season, but altogether there has been a decided improvement in the condition of the workman. From April to May cannmakers did no work; (a) then for about two weeks they received 25 cents per hundred for 2-pound cans, and 30 cents for 3-pound cans. From that time till July 3d, or about six weeks, they received 25 cents per hundred for all sizes made. From that time until October they received 30 cents for 2-pound, and 35 cents for 3-pound, when they succeeded in raising the rate to 60 cents and 65 cents respectively. Taking as a basis the total number made in 1884, the average number of 2-pound cans made per week was 977,692, and of 3-pound cans 360,923; and, allowing for the great fluctuation in price, the wages paid for making that number of cans was \$181,971, which divided into the total number of cans made in the entire season, viz.: 52,317,000, will give the price as 34 cents per 100 cans of all sizes, being an advance of 7 cents per hundred over the wages of 1884.

The prospects for the trade are brighter for the season of 1885-86, (b) and I believe a larger number of cans will be

(a) See Chapter VI., "Cannmakers."

(b) At the opening of the season of 1886 an agreement was entered into between the employees and the majority of the employers, to take effect April 17th, 1886, providing that prices for the season should be as follows—

1-pound cans, per hundred.....	30 cents.
2-pound " " "	35 "
3-pound " " "	40 "

These prices to be fixed for one year.

made. I estimate for 1885 cannmakers' wages will average \$9.12 cents per week per annum, the working days being 234.

The introduction of labor-saving machinery has affected the wages of round cannmakers, and reduced the number of men who can find employment in the trade. In the manufacture of machine-made cans—after the tin has been cut and seamed, the machine solders the work. It is attended by youths and girls, who receive \$3.50 and \$4 per week wages, and work an average time of eight months per year. The machine will turn out 2,500 cans per day, or is equal to the work of five men. Machines solder the work from the outside, and fluxes are used which are claimed by the hand cannmakers to be injurious. On hand-made cans rosin is used for a flux. To prevent as far as possible the sale of machine-made cans for hand-made cans, the "Cannmakers' Mutual Protective Association," an organization incorporated under the laws of the State by the employees in this industry, secured the right to a trade mark from the United States Government, and, under certain conditions, have licensed manufacturers to stamp the same on the bottom of cans. The mark consists of the words, "Hand-made, C. M. M. P. A.," and is indented in the tin. The union believes that this device will prove beneficial to the trade, and tend to create a demand for hand-made goods.* It was impossible to determine the exact number of machine cans used by the trade, but not less than 30,000,000 such cans were made in Baltimore during 1884.

* The use of the stamp has proved very satisfactory to the workmen. A very general demand has been created throughout the country for the "hand-made" can; so much so that one manufacturer in Baltimore alone has in the season of 1886 determined to make 3,000,000 stamped cans. This increase of labor so created is one of the most satisfactory and practical results of intelligent combination on the part of workmen. It is a plan which other trades are rapidly adopting.

The two methods of soldering is not likely to be distinguished by consumers, and the workmen complain that large numbers of machine cans are sold as hand-made, to the injury of the manual industry.

The manufacture of square cans, used in packing raw oysters, has largely fallen off during the last few years. It was formerly a trade which gave employment to the tin cannmakers during the winter months, but, owing to the method adopted of shipping oysters in "bulk"—that is in barrels, tubs, etc.,—the number of square cans used in the trade has been largely reduced. Thus, for example, a few years ago one firm made a trifle over 2,000,000 square cans in a season, while in the season of 1884-85, 3,000,000 square cans for all shops, would, I believe, be a liberal estimate. Square cans are designated as "half" cans and "whole" cans. Boys engaged in their manufacture received 20 cents per one hundred, and men 40 cents per one hundred for "half" cans, and men making "whole" cans received 60 cents per hundred. Tin cannmakers consider that the "bulk" system of packing has practically destroyed the square can trade.

The tin can trade is the only industry protected against convict contract labor by the laws of the State.*

COAL MINERS.

The centre of the great coal-mining industry of the State of Maryland lies in Alleghany and Garrett counties, in the extreme northwestern portion of the State. It is known as the Frostburg or Cumberland coal basin, being about 20 miles in length with an average breadth of four and a half miles. The surface of the basin is irregular, being intersected by deep ravines, wherein the swift currents of streams and rivers have washed away portions of the coal beds, and, as a consequence, the coal-seam crops out from

* See Chapter VIII., "Canned Goods."

the mountains on either side of the valley at a corresponding level. This condition affords excellent facilities for mining operations, and, except in the case of the "Borden" shaft, all the mines are entered on the sides of the mountains, thus saving considerable labor and expense.

The coal is bituminous in its character, of the kind known as "close burning," being an intermediate variety between the fat coal of Pittsburg and the anthracite of Pennsylvania. It holds the highest place among American coals for its evaporative powers, and is extensively used on steam vessels. In the principal seam there is about 10 feet thickness of good ("breast") coal. Smaller seams lie beneath the main seam, but they cannot be worked except at a greater cost, and this is not likely to be undertaken while the present supply continues. The mines now in operation in Maryland employ an aggregate of 3,500 hands.

The nationalities of these workmen include Welch, Irish, Scotch, English, German and Americans. These predominate throughout the district in the order named. There are a few "Swedes" remaining of the whole number who were brought into the district to work in the "Eckert" mine during the great strike of 1882, and who yet occupy the houses of the company in that vicinity; but it is a class of labor not to be found elsewhere throughout the coal region.

The miners are an intelligent and thrifty body of men. They are well informed, ready to impart information, and have uniformly expressed their appreciation of this Bureau as a means to present the condition of their industry to the General Assembly of Maryland.

The houses of the miners are stretched along the banks of George's creek, or are built on the steep sides of the Alleghany mountains, the town of Lonaconing being

the most populous mining centre beyond Frostburg, numbering among its inhabitants 1,100 miners. The houses are principally frame buildings, perfectly plain, built in what is termed "blocks," that is, two houses built together under one roof. As a rule, a small garden plot runs by the side of either house, the average lot being 30 by 100 feet. The houses are two stories high, containing three to four rooms and sometimes a shed kitchen. The garden, cultivated with vegetables, may be considered worth \$10 per annum to the miner. Some keep a cow, a few pigs and chickens. The coal companies own some houses. Company houses rent for \$3.50 to \$4 per month; other houses rent for \$4 to \$6, according to location. When a mine is opened houses spring up in the immediate vicinity and rents rise. After some years the mine runs out and the men seek work a greater distance and rents fall. Very many miners living under cheap rents walk long distances to their work, four and five miles not being unusual, and as early as four o'clock in the morning the dancing lights of their lamps can be seen ascending the hills as the men trudge to their labor. Again, the coal is constantly receding in the mines, some of the workings penetrating the hills as far as one and three-quarter miles, therefore houses in the immediate neighborhood command the highest rents.

Some years back, when miners were receiving 65 cents per ton and there was abundant work, some of the old hands bought their own houses. These do not, however, constitute more than one third of the whole number now in the district, and many of them find their property encumbered with debt. There is a great want of proper sanitary regulation in the mining districts, especially objectionable in the more thickly populated quarters.

The public and private morals of the mining community are excellent. Men, as a rule, marry young, and while

there are no restrictions on the use of intoxicating drinks, intemperance is the exception. The public schools are well conducted, and the opportunity to acquire a reasonable education is within reach, except where necessity for child-labor prevents its attainment. Women and girls attend exclusively to household duties. Boys from 12 to 17 years of age work in the mines whenever they can secure a "half-turn." The practice of giving boys a "half-turn" is common to all the mines; thus, if a miner has a boy working with him, the miner receives two cars per day and the boy receives one car, or half a turn, and the miner is paid for three cars. After 17 years of age the boys are regarded as men and are entitled to a full turn.

It is not necessary here to comment, to any extent, on the dangers attending a coal miner's occupation. Men are constantly meeting with accidents in which they are liable to be maimed or killed; not only when actually at work, but while eating their meals in the mine, or when loading cars, or even in passing along the passages; indeed, it is difficult to find a miner 30 years of age who has not met with some disaster. So common is the danger in mines that it is customary with miners to leave \$1 per month of their wages in the hands of the company to pay the fees of the physician. This may be more readily appreciated by a brief consideration of the character of their work:

Coal beds, with very rare exceptions, are composed of numerous strata, in which the pure "benches" are divided by strata of "bone coal," slate, or other rocky partings. These strata vary in thickness, and are constantly divided by what are termed "slips," or fissures in their substance. The "breast" coal, lying between these strata of impure materials, is the coal taken out for the market, and the weight of the mountain above, pressing upon the roof of the mine, causes it to cave in, oftentimes without warning.

To guard against such a contingency timber props are inserted as the mine is advanced—a precaution, however, not always certain. The company supplies these “props” or posts, but the work of putting them up is done by the miners, who also lay the tracks for the cars as the working is advanced. When the coal is exhausted the miners remove the props, and the mountain settles bodily—an operation involving great danger to life and limb.

Again, the soft nature of Cumberland coal is a source of danger. Unlike anthracite coal, it does not bind in a solid mass, but is full of “slips,” into which the miner may unwarily penetrate, and suddenly dislodge great masses of coal, which, falling outwards from the “face” of the working, is liable to crush and bury him.

There is no inflammable gas or “fire-damp” in the Maryland mines, but what is known as the “black damp” is met with, and is very foul and injurious. To remedy this, some mines have air-shafts ascending to the surface, at the base of which a large furnace rarifies the air and causes it to ascend, thus creating an artificial current of air through the workings.

In portions of some mines the men may be found working in 10 or 12 inches of water. It is not surprising, therefore, that miners suffer both in health and body. Shut out from air and daylight, engaged in arduous toil, exposed to damp and danger, the miner who lives to 45 or 50 years of age is decrepit and broken down.

I introduce the foregoing brief description for the purpose of illustrating the labor of a coal miner. Such facts may come more properly within the department of the mine inspector. There is no branch of industry in the State which demands more careful legislative supervision than this, and no body of men more properly entitled to protection in their labor than the coal miners of Maryland.

Subdivision of Labor.

The labor in and around a mine may be designated as follows: Mine boss, manifest clerk, weigher, miners, drivers, tracklayers, blacksmiths, carpenters, engineers, laborers, boys.

Miners.

Coal miners, working in the day time, work from 7 o'clock A. M. to 6 o'clock P. M. in the winter, and from 6 o'clock A. M. to 6 o'clock P. M. in the summer months. Men who live far from the mine often leave home at 5 o'clock A. M. and return at 8 o'clock P. M. at night. Miners work, in other words, 10 and 11 hours per day, allowing one hour for dinner time. (a)

They can fill two cars per day per man, but do not always receive the cars. A car holds two tons of coal. The miner can and does put more coal on the car, but he must not exceed 500 pounds extra per car, or he is subject to lose a turn. The average extra weight usual per car is 300 pounds. The coal is weighed on the scales, either at the mouth of the mine or where it is dumped into the railroad cars, (b) and the weight is credited to the number of the "room" where it was mined, which is designated by a wooden tag attached by the miner to the car when he fills it.

In considering the wages earned by miners it should be remembered that in the Cumberland region the coal miner digs 2,240 pounds of coal for the ton. The price now paid for mining coal is 40 cents per ton. Prior to December 1st, 1884, the price was 50 cents; it was then reduced by the companies, the men submitting to the cut without striking.

The earnings of a miner depend largely on the nature and situation of the coal he is working, and upon the number of cars he is allowed to fill per day; this lies entirely at the discretion of the company. No more coal is allowed

(a) See Chapter VIII., Laws—"Hours of Labor."

(b) See Chapter VI., "Strikes—Miners." Also Chapter VII., "Blank 673."

to be dug than is needed for shipment, there being no accommodations for such a store. It is a mistake also to regard as a miner's earnings the sum he receives on pay day, for that will often include a "half turn" he is allowed for a boy who helps him in the mine.

The following review of the condition of miners' families and wages is as accurate as could be made. It is not based on the figures of a corporation, or an individual workman, but is the result of returns made from different mines, based on different calculations, submitted by different men to this office, which, by reason of their uniformity, give assurance to me of their truth and accuracy. I may add, that the reports have not in any case been selected or adapted to produce special results. Fifty cents per ton was the price paid for digging coal up to December 1st, 1884.

The average earnings of an adult miner was, in 1884, \$445. That is to say, miners dug 890 tons of coal, at 50 cents per ton, in that year. The average lost time in 1884 was, for each man in the district, 55 days, which, deducted from a possible 309, gives 254 actual working days. That is to say, miners dug 890 tons of coal in 254 days, or $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons of coal per day. Taking the proportion of those families which included more than one member working in the mines, the average income of a family in the mining regions in 1884 was \$514.88.

Up to the week ending October 3, 1885, there was a decrease of shipment of coal under 1884 of 43,291 tons. This shows a slight falling off in the amount of coal dug.

This report being written prior to the close of 1885, it was impossible to obtain the actual amount of the coal movement for the year. The months of November and December may bring the output to about the same figures as were reached in 1884. Therefore, basing the calculation on my figures for 1884, viz: 890 tons per man, and allowing 20 per cent. reduction in wages, the total earnings of a

miner will be \$356 for 1885, or \$1.40 per working day.* The average number of a miner's family is $5\frac{3}{4}$ individuals. I here submit a list of 12 families, showing the number of workers, the income for 1884, their expenses, and the number composing the family, together with the debit or credit beyond or within their income on the year's transactions. It will be seen by this that the total earnings of these 12 families was \$6,278.61. Their total expenses, including \$205.03 for oil and tools, was \$5,680.94, leaving a balance to their credit of \$497.67, and that five families lived beyond their income, and seven within it. (For table showing income and expenses of the twelve miners' families here referred to see page 84.)

* My friend Mr. Henry W. Schaidt, the editor and proprietor of the *Lonaconing Weekly Review*, a gentleman of much practical experience, published in January, 1886, an interesting statement and tables, of which the following is a synopsis—

"The shipments of coal from the mines of George's Creek coal regions for the year 1885 were 2,795,404 tons, being a decrease of 53,488 tons as compared with 1884. Although the report shows a decrease, yet the business for the year was quite satisfactory, and exceeds by 120,000 tons the shipments of the flush times of 1873. A greater number of men employed and a reduction in the price of mining accounts for the present "hard times," as it is often called. The following shows the increase or decrease in the business of each company as compared with 1884, as taken from the unofficial reports of each company—

COMPANY.	1885.	Compared with 1884.	
		Increase.	Decrease.
Consolidation.....	688,150	6,686	
Maryland.....	364,495	69,422	
W. Va., C. and P.....	268,720		107,207
G. C. C. and I.....	253,776		2,550
American.....	220,338	25,976	
New Central.....	200,055		
Potomac.....	177,015	27,322	
Borden.....	176,669	15,321	
Maryland Union.....	97,709		20,105
Bleau Avon.....	68,678		31,906
Big Vein.....	65,792		17,378
Atlantic and G. C.....	63,337	3,426	
National.....	48,100	5,582	
Davis & Elkins.....	47,218		
Swanton.....	45,754	21,010	
Davis Mine.....	45,754	9,565	
P. B. and I.....	32		
Atlantic—J. P. Ryan.....	1,377		1,217

Miners' wages are paid by the month. (b) The companies supply the tools, viz.: A pick, shovel, sledge and wedge. One cent per ton is deducted from the miners' wages to pay for sharpening tools. Thus, in a mine whose output is 800 tons the deduction would be \$8 per day, or for a month of 26 days, \$208. Blacksmiths' wages are \$1.75, and helpers \$1.25 per day, or for one month of 26 days, \$78. Add 75 cents per day for shop expenses gives \$97.50 as the cost of sharpening tools for one month, and leaves a balance from \$208 of \$110.50 deducted from miners' wages to cover the wear and tear of tools for 26 days. Miners are required to provide the oil they use in the mine. It costs 55 cents per gallon, or per man per month, \$1.10.

The "truck" system, or payment of wages in companies' store orders, is not in vogue in the mining district. (c) There

Mr. Schaidt gives the following as the average of miners' wages in the various mines during 1885—

MINE.	Days Worked.	Tons Dug.	Wages.
New Hope—about.....	250	993	\$397 20
Alleghany—about.....	200	725	290 00
Borden Shaft.....		850	340 00
Ocean.....		979 $\frac{3}{4}$	391 90
Old Coney—Mc.Gh.....	241	1,287	514 80
Old Coney—new e. s.....	196		
New Coney.....	106 $\frac{1}{2}$		
Koontz.....	243 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,173	469 20
Jackson.....	196	1,231	492 40
Kingsland.....	229 $\frac{3}{4}$	1,149	459 60
New Detmold.....	222	1,165	466 00
Pekiu.....	70	148 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 40
Potomac.....	295	1,290	480 00
Franklin.....	181	1,003	401 20

These figures give a general average per year of \$396.50 per man, my calculation being \$356. The results were arrived at by different methods, and I believe that the mean price between his figures and mine may be accepted as representing the most correct average which could be obtained in the discussion of this much vexed question of "What are coal miners' individual wages in Maryland?"

Mr. Schaidt adds: "The highest figures in 'New Hope' and 'Alleghany' are given in this list, and in addition to the figures for digging coal the men did considerable work in repairing and opening mines."

(b) For opinions of workmen see Chapter VII.

(c) See Chapter VIII., "Wages."

Table Showing the Income and Expenses of Twelve Miners' Families in Maryland.

are some stores owned by the companies, and employees find it advisable to deal with them, but the majority of the men deal at private stores. The miner is generally in debt to the storekeeper. Pay-day being only once a month, the credit system is the rule. It is contended by the men that a shorter system would enable them to deal to greater advantage for cash.*

Of the other employees, mine bosses receive \$75, manifest clerks, \$50, and weighers, \$50 per month. The hands paid by the day are—drivers, \$1.60; track layers, \$1.90; blacksmiths, \$1.75; carpenters, \$1.75; engineers, \$1.90; laborers, \$1.25; boys, 75 cents. Hands not employed by the month make the same average time as miners. Wages vary in different mines at times, but the foregoing is a fair estimate.

Coal Trimmers.

This report on the coal industry would not be complete without reference to the labor engaged on the wharves of Baltimore City, where the coal is shipped. There are nine wharves in Baltimore, employing an average of 20 trimmers to each wharf, or an aggregate of 180 trimmers and 80 laborers. The work varies considerably; it was reported as generally good in 1884, but slack in 1885. Coal trimmers work stripped naked to the waist, covered with coal dust, the sweat pouring off them in the black holds of the vessels, where the hot air is so thick with the dust that the lights of their lamps can scarcely be discerned by the unaccustomed sight. It requires strong and vigorous men to do the work of coal trimming. They are paid by the ton, according to the character of the vessel they work in, from 3 cents to 18 cents per ton. Coal trimmers work in gangs, each wharf employing a number ranging from 14 to 40, according to the extent of the business, and it is possible, at the rates given above, for a coal trimmer to earn \$6 in a day of ten hours.

*See tables of food prices, Chapter V.

Indeed, if a hand is taken sick, or is otherwise prevented from working in the gang, he has to pay a substitute 40 cents per hour, but the work is so irregular that the average wages made by coal trimmers is \$3.50 per day for an average of 186 working days per year, or \$12.63 per week the year round.

The work is very unevenly distributed among the wharves. I have endeavored to arrive at figures which properly represent the entire industry. One cent per ton commission is paid by the men to the wharf agent to pay for collecting from the owners of the vessels the charge for trimming. In nationality the hands are about equally divided between Irish and German.

The labor is engaged pushing the coal cars on the wharves and emptying their contents down the shutes into the vessels. They are principally Bohemians. They receive 20 cents per hour, and work the same time as the coal trimmers, making an average wage for that time of \$2.10 per day, or \$7.58 per week the year round.

CLOTHING TRADE.

I estimate the number of hands employed in the various branches of the clothing trade to be 16,000, two-thirds of which number are females. This estimate includes shirt, cuff and collar makers, milliners, dress and cloak makers and tailors, tailoresses and seamstresses. To determine the actual number engaged would require a sufficient staff of enumerators to visit all the byways of the great city, to enter all the workrooms hidden away in corners, to go into the toiling places of extreme poverty, where task-masters who receive the work from the great stores, manufacture it at high pressure, for the lowest possible pay, by poor female labor. It would be necessary to visit "homes," where the whole family slaves at this industry, and to pry into solitary chambers where, in the late hours of the night, women ply the needle and thread in their struggle for life.

The employees in the clothing trade are of all nationalities—German, Bohemian, Irish, Polish Jew, American, etc. In the finer grades of merchant-tailoring the Irish tailor is generally regarded as the superior workman. The Polish Jew is about the lowest in the scale. He lives, as a rule, by taking the work in bulk, at a very low price, and making it up by the labor of badly paid, overworked girls and women. There must be no misunderstanding this section of the report. I repeat that men, women and children engaged in the tailoring, shirt-making and cheap clothing trade are universally underpaid and overworked. Prices have been so recklessly cut, that between 1884 and 1885 there has been a falling off in many of the rates paid of over 25 per cent. A tailor, working on "store" work, with a woman to help him, by working on an average of fourteen hours per day, can make \$12 per week for ten months in the year. As a practical illustration of female industry in this department, I here submit the return made to one of the "blanks" issued by the Bureau. It is not an exception among those returned by women (Blank 437): "I am 37 years of age, married, but a widow. I support myself, and have five children depending on me. It costs me \$5 per week to live—that is, it would cost, but I have done with less than \$1.50. I rent a house. I work 18 hours per day, and earn from \$3 to \$5 per week. I receive \$1.10 to \$1.15 per dozen pair for making pantaloons."

It is on women's shoulders that the burden of the clothing trade rests, not on the men, and it is more so in the cheap "slop" clothing trade than in the custom work. Women working on custom work can earn \$1 per day, but they cannot procure this employment more than five months in the year. At other times they work for ready-made clothing houses, earning from 50 cents to 75 cents per day. A day's work is about 12 hours, although 14 and 18 hours is not an unusual task for sewing women to perform and

call a "day's" work. For "finishing off" custom pantaloons, women are paid \$1.50 per dozen.

For making alpaca coats, from \$2 per dozen to 20 and 30 cents each, according to quality of garment. A woman can make from three to four of the latter kind in a long day's work. The season runs from October to May. For linen pantaloons women are paid 8 to 12½ cents per pair. For custom pants, 65 cents per pair (1½ pair per day). "Slop" pants, 12 to 35 cents per pair (four pair per day). For vests, 18 to 20 cents each (three vests per day).

One half the work done "at home" is carried on in the dense, close atmosphere of small tenements; and poor light, bad air, long hours and indifferent food stamps the female labor engaged in this industry with all the marks of wasting toil and disease. My experience of this trade is, that there is more misfortune, hard work and misery in its lower branches than the majority of other industries I have examined, and that it is less seen and less realized, because it is buried out of sight in the privacy of the working people's homes. Factory labor is far better than this work; that comes under rules and regulations, can be made amenable to law, but the work toiled over in the retirement of the home is known only, in all its hardships, to the parties engaged, and is beyond the scrutiny of the public.

Ready-made Clothing.

The men employed in preparing the stock for the hands are

Cutters,

who earn from \$12 to \$18 per week, and work an average time of 261 days per year.

Trimmers,

who earn from \$8 to \$14 per week, and who are seldom out of employment; and

Tailors,

who are divided into coat, vest and pantaloons-makers. On pantaloons some tailors do a portion of the work and

employ girls to finish. They are paid by the piece, and by adopting the system of taking the work in large quantities and portioning it out to a number of hands at home, or dividing it up among the members of their families, some tailors make money at the prices given. Prices range as follows—

Cheap coats, 35 cents; best do., \$2 to \$2.50; "cutaway" coats pay 75 to 87 cents to make. One tailor and three hands to "finish" can make 24 coats per week, average day's work 15 hours. Pantaloons, 12 to 14 to 35 cents per pair; some very cheap goods, such as those referred to in the opening of this article, do not pay more than \$1.10 to \$1.25 per dozen pair. Vests range from 15 to 35 cents; tailors supply their own silk, cotton and machine.

Button-hole Machine Operators

receive, for single coats, 35 cents per 100 button-holes; for overcoats, 40 cents; and for vests, 25 cents. Girls who finish off the button-hole after the machine are paid \$4.50 per week; bosses who work for the trade charge one cent per hole.

Custom Trade.

Cutters in this branch of the clothing-trade are paid salaries according to the establishment in which they are engaged. Like the designers and originators in other branches of the mechanical arts, their remuneration depends on their capacity and skill, and the estimation in which they are held by the trade as expert workmen; \$20 to \$25 per week will represent the wages received by good men in this branch. The prices paid to

Custom Tailors

are as follows: For pantaloons, \$1 to \$1.25 per pair; vests, \$1 to \$2; coats, \$5 to \$15. Men are paid better prices than women; they do superior work and average \$15 per week per year. Prices vary very much in this trade, being regulated to a great extent by the class of custom,

and each shop makes its own rates. There is a trade-union of custom tailors in Baltimore City principally composed of Germans. The Bohemian tailors are organized in the Knights of Labor.

Overalls and Blouses.

Girls and children are principally employed in the factories doing this work. The children range from 10 to 15 years of age, and constitute about one-third of the whole number employed. Children earn from \$1 to \$2 per week. The hours of labor in the factory are from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M.; but, being piece-workers, the girls work very constantly: indeed, though working by the piece, the foremen never permit idleness, and there is certainly 11 hours' work done to the day. The factories run all the year round, and hands make full time. They are paid from 28 to 34 cents per dozen for overalls, and 18 to 24 cents per dozen for blouses; \$1 per day is the highest wages that can be made.

HATS.

There are no felt hats made in this State. There are four small silk hat factories in Baltimore City employing about 15 journeymen. They are employed about eight months in the year, and earn from \$15 to \$18 per week. There is a national union which governs the rate of wages in this trade.

Straw Hats.

There are five factories making these goods. They employ during the season about 300 hands, of which number upward of 200 are girls. The straw plait comes from England, Japan and China; the "Mackinaw" braid comes from Michigan. The girls in the factory are employed sewing it together and are divided into machine and hand-sewers. They are paid by the dozen, and while the double edge sewer may make a trifle better wages than the hand-sewer, the general run of female labor will earn about \$4

per week. The factory runs about nine months in the year, and good hands are sometimes employed during dull times at half pay to secure their services for the next season. The factories are in excellent condition, and the girls have every accommodation. A superior class of girls are employed in this trade, and the condition of the labor is creditable.

SHIRTMaking.

Shirtmaking is carried on in the factory and in the home. Very large numbers are made at home, and the cheapest class of goods are so made. Girls working in factories work 10 hours per day and earn from \$4 to \$5 per week on the best class of goods. Children employed as folders and creasers are paid \$1.50 per week. The factories are generally on the upper floors of buildings light and airy, and in very good condition; the majority of establishments run by steam. The hand and foot-labor of sewing women at home is the hard work in shirt-making. Common shirts are made for $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents each, and white shirts for 3 cents. The bosom, wristband and neckband are supplied and they put them on. These women find their own cotton and machine, and must work fully 12 hours per day, and be expert, to make an average wages of \$3.50 to \$4 per week.

DRESSMAKING.

Dressmakers work about nine months in the year, the best hands are the

Cutters and Trimmers,

and their wages are regulated by their skill and the class of custom they work on.

Sewing-hands

in large establishments are paid \$3 to \$3.50 per week. Wages have fallen in the shops during the last two years nearly 30 per cent. Dressmakers outside of Baltimore City in this State are principally conducting private businesses, there not being the demand to create factory labor.

CLOAKMAKERS

receive an average of \$1.50 per cloak and earn from \$3.50 to \$5 per week. Hands working on

White Goods

are divided into tuckers, sewers and finishers. Prices may be judged when it is stated that a complete lace dress is made for 50 cents, skirts from 17 to 19 cents. At these prices the operatives can earn \$5 per week. Work in this line continues all the year round, and the girls work late into the night.

COTTON MANUFACTURE.

I have to acknowledge that when I entered upon the preparation of this section of my report, I did so entertaining a very strong prejudice against the factory system. I believed then, and was fully prepared to find, that there was no class of employees who occupied so unenviable a position among wage-workers as the cotton-factory operatives. My inquiries were therefore instituted with the greater care that I should not be influenced by the representation of those who conducted the establishments, and whose interest might be expected to color their opinions. The only mill that I visited openly as the chief of the Labor Bureau of the State was the Savage mill, in Howard county. Woodberry was visited three times, and twice by agents, and the conclusion I have reached is, that instead of being the worst system, it is, in my mature judgment, the best system for the employment of female labor.

I found the mill operatives intelligent, reasonably well educated, and retaining in their private life those virtues which grace the home, and are the adornment of the family circle. When I come to contrast this labor, secluded and separate as it is, working in large, commodious, light and well ventilated factories, with the female labor thatmingles with the roughest of humanity in the oyster-

shucking houses; with the girls who work in the dust and smell of the tobacco trade; with the white faced, hollow-chested, impoverished labor of the sewing trade, working in their homes, I felt—and here record—that woman, under the factory system (as presented in the cotton factories of this State) derives from it greater protection than is afforded in any other branch of our female industries.

I except from this general statement the hands employed in decorating pottery. They enjoy the benefits of the factory-system, and, in addition, are engaged in what, to my thinking, is a pleasanter and less laborious class of work than that of the cotton-factory operative, but they are very few in number in this State, and constitute the exception to the general rule of female employment.

I am not to be understood as endorsing the general principle of female employment. I am directly and positively opposed to female and child labor. I have yet to hear one reason for it, except the reason of poverty in the home, which results from mismanagement and misfortune in our manufacturing and social systems. But, while female employment continues as a fact, and I suppose it must and will continue, then the factory system, such as that I am now considering is, in my judgment, the best system under which women can work; and, being subject to rules, regulations and restraint, is superior to the home labor.

It is true that the wages of the cotton operatives have been greatly reduced during the last two years, reduced in money and in the loss of employment. This reduction was especially felt in Woodberry, the largest manufacturing town in the State, having about 9,000 inhabitants. This town is supported almost entirely by the nine cotton mills located there, and consequently a distress, which in other trades would be widespread, is more perceptible because of the concentration of the labor. I do not believe that

the cotton trade has suffered in proportion more than the other trades (I mean the employees in the cotton trade).

During the year 1884 the mills in Woodberry shut down entirely from July to August, and ran a very great portion of the year on three-quarters time. Very many of the operatives went away, others sought employment in Baltimore City, (and many such went to work in the tobacco trade), but since the opening of 1885 the trade has shown an improvement, and work has been more constant. In the town of Savage the employment has been steady, and taken altogether I do not believe there has been as much distress as in some other trades, and wages, while reduced, have not been, comparatively, as much reduced. Reductions have been great in nearly all industries, and it is a misfortune which falls heavily upon the labor of the State, but I say, advisedly, that such reduction is not more in the cotton industry; it is simply more noticeable because the labor is more concentrated.

The cotton mills of the State are pleasantly situated, well ventilated, and are supplied with sufficient light and air. They are also well protected against fire, being supplied, in addition to hose, with fire buckets, which are well distributed over the buildings. The rooms are kept clean, and although the ceilings are not very lofty, yet good ventilation is secured from the number of windows. Operatives are sometimes affected from the lint and dust arising from the work, but it does not appear serious, for the larger portion of those working in the industry have been in the mills a long time. One girl, 19 years of age, remarked to us, in conversation, that "the employment was to be preferred to serving in some person's kitchen." She said further that, owing to the ill health of her father, she and five other of his children worked in the mill and supported the family.

There are a great number of children, male and female, whose ages range from 10 years and upward, employed in the cotton mills, and there are employees whose age reaches 50 and 70 years. Some girls attend two looms, and some can attend four, and their wages vary accordingly. Each girl is expected to keep her loom oiled and cleaned, and they are not allowed to hold conversation during the working hours, which are 10½ per day.

The average wages stated in the table contained in the chapter on "wages," were paid in the years 1883-84. There was a reduction of seven per cent. in 1885. During 1883 the mills ran full time, 310 days; in 1884 the time was partly full and partly short, making for the year about 261 days. In 1885 work has been steady, and it is to be expected that they will make very nearly full time.

FURNITURE TRADE.

Cabinetmakers.

There are 130 establishments in the State engaged in manufacturing and repairing furniture and chairs, including shops that do custom work. These altogether employ 1,500 hands, including about 200 women and children actually employed in the branches of manufacture. The great majority of factory hands are of German nationality.

Some factories make furniture out and out; others finish work which comes from other states in the "white;" and the remainder make "custom" work. Many of them are in a poor condition—situated on the upper floors, very much crowded with stock and lumber, approached by narrow stairways, and not protected against fire. Two or three of the larger establishments are exceptions to this rule, and are well kept. The whole work of cutting and shaping the lumber in the factory is done by machinery, every description of wood working machinery being employed. The workmen say that the increasing number of labor-saving machines is driving them out of employment, reducing their number and their wages.

Moulding-machine and planer hands make from \$10 to \$12 per week; sawyers from \$7 to \$9 per week, for ten hours work per day. Machine hands are usually employed the year round. In the large factories machine hands cut out and shape the work, in others the cabinetmakers do the machine work, with the exception, perhaps, of running the tenon and moulding machines and scroll saw. No designers are employed in factories; the foreman, as a rule, lays out the work. Foremen receive from \$2 to \$3 per day the year round.

Cabinetmakers employed in factories have no occasion to exercise the skill necessary in making "custom work." Hands in factories may be good mechanics, yet the system of manufacture is such as to practically dispense with individual skill.

Cabinetmakers work by the piece, and prices range as follows: Bedsteads, from 35 cents to \$2.50 each. Men engaged on this work can average \$10.50 per week. Bureaus from 50 cents to 85 cents each. Washstands, from 25 cents to 75 cents each. Dressing-cases, from \$1 to \$2.75 each. Veneered walnut wardrobes, \$12 each (this article takes one week and a half to make). Plain wardrobe, size 4½ feet, \$4 each (can make two per week). Average wages of workman, \$9 per week. Hands will work 234 days per year. Good workmen employed by the week receive from \$7.50 to \$12, and are as a rule retained the year round.

The contract system is generally practiced in furniture factories—that is to say, the employer contracts with a hand to make for him a certain quantity of work. The contractor thereupon employs the labor to suit himself, on the best terms he can obtain it, and is responsible to the men for wages. A contractor will make from \$20 to \$25 per week by this system. Owing to this plan many youths are employed, especially in varnishing. There is no necessity to serve an apprenticeship in what is called cabinet-making under the factory system.

Establishments that do not manufacture furniture from the lumber, receive it in the white and finish it. Most white work finished in Maryland, comes from Lebanon, N. H., and Williamsport, Pa.. This is the common work, made of poplar and bass wood, and made at the place where the lumber grows.

Wages are so small in factory work that the wives and children of many men are compelled to render their assistance towards the support of the family. Work in the factories was dull during 1884 and the latter part of 1885. Very few workmen made full time.

Varnish Shop.

There are about 150 hands employed in varnishing, one-third of which number are youths, and there are few men over 25 years of age. The business of a varnish shop can be conducted by a foreman, to direct the young and unskilled labor; the work is wholly mechanical. Youths engaged in this work are from 16 to 18 years of age; they work 10 hours per day, and earn from \$1.50 to \$7 per week, according to their capacity for work.

Young men following this trade say that it requires a strong constitution to stand the work. It is very confining, varnishing having to be done in a close room to avoid dust. The house painting trade is largely recruited from boys who commenced work varnishing furniture.

Ornamental Painting.

Ornamental painting and lining furniture is done by the piece. Three pieces go to the suit, and the average price is 28 cents per suit. A good hand can make \$2 per day; work runs about 234 days per year. Furniture packers average \$7.50 per week per annum.

Chairmaking.

This is not an extensive industry. Chairs are imported principally from Massachusetts, in the white, in a condition

which is termed "knocked down"—*i. e.*, they come in parts. This class of goods are put together here for from 10 to 25 cents per dozen. Hands engaged in this work can earn an average of \$9 per week when employed. Trade has been dull; men have not made over eight months' work per year.

Patternmakers.

These hands, who construct the pattern for the chair, to which pattern the machinery is set, receive \$10 per week per annum. Machine hands average \$7 per week per annum.

Staining and Varnishing.

Principally boys; they work under the contract system; are paid for common chairs 40 cents per dozen; rockers, 60 cents per dozen. They can make from \$2.50 to \$4 per week.

Chaircaning.

Girls are employed in this industry. They work by the piece, and are paid from 4 to 14 cents per chair. The average wage for mixed work is \$3.50 per week. These girls are reasonably well provided for, the majority living with their friends, and their earnings are in the nature of a contribution to the family fund. They work 10 hours per day, and the employment has been regular. Repairing work is paid for at the rate of 50 cents per day.*

Upholsterers.

Very cheap work is done in this branch in the factories; it is quantity, certainly not quality, which is the rule. There are many youths and boys employed, working on cheap suits and cheap lounges. Wages have fallen, and the work is up to high pressure.

Boys employed in springing up the work—that is, putting in the springs and preparing the work for the cover, receive \$2 per week. Upholsterers do this work by the piece; they

* In March, 1886, the girls employed in caning chairs at Canton, Baltimore went on a strike for an advance of 3 cents per seat.

are paid for common hair cloth suits \$3.50 each suit, and can average 3 suits per week; for plain plush suits they receive \$4; for common lounges the price is 25 cents each, or sometimes three for \$1. A few women work at this branch of the trade. The average wages while at work is \$10.50 per week. They make about eight months per annum.

Custom Shops.

Most of the establishments doing custom work manufacture fine goods, both artistic in design and elegant in finish. There are few, if any, inferior workmen employed in these shops, and the work is done by hand. They employ cabinet-makers, carvers, upholsterers and varnishers, and in one or two establishments designers.

Cabinetmakers receive from \$9 to \$13, carvers from \$10 to \$14, varnishers from \$9 to \$11 per week. The trade in the custom shop is better in the fall of the year, but it has been uncertain. Nine months per annum has been a fair average of working time, although there are men who are constantly retained on their personal merits in these establishments.

Upholsterers in custom shops are paid from \$9 to \$12 per week; women, \$5, and carpet sewers, \$6 per week.

Employees in the furniture trade are connected with the "International Furniture Makers' Union of America." The declared object of this union is "the maintenance and increase of the current rate of wages, shortening the hours of labor, abolition of the contract system, mutual support in case of strikes, losses by fire, lack of employment, sickness or death, contests with employers in the courts, and the support of a trade journal."

Reports of local shop organizations are sent to the main body every three months. A sum equal to \$1 per capita is retained in the central treasury in New York as an insurance fund, to pay death policies. The union pays, under this

head, \$100 on the death of a member's wife; \$250 on the death of a member, and \$6 per week in the event of a member's sickness. The dues are 50 cents per month. There is a system by which workmen's tools are insured by the union against fire. The union further undertakes only to give support to such strikes as are authorized by the executive committee, when they will pay \$5 per week to each member on strike.

A convention is held biennially of delegates from the several local unions, and a fund is provided to pay traveling expenses, etc., by the quarterly subscription of 5 cents per member. This union has branches in all parts of the country, and is a strong organization. The only local union in Maryland is located in Baltimore City.* It is not strong in numbers, that is, in proportion to hands employed in the trade, but it includes in its membership some of the most intelligent and skillful workmen, and to such an extent influences the affairs of the trade.

PIANOMAKERS.

There are four factories in Maryland engaged in the manufacture of pianos. They are all situated in Baltimore City, and give employment to about 300 hands. These establishments are divided into several departments, and employ the best skilled labor in their various branches. Fine workmen are to be found making the cabinet work, and the nicety of finish, and accurate adjustment of the instruments produced, demands similar expertness in all hands employed.

The majority of hands are Germans. Work was steady during 1884, with a slight decline in the fall of the year. Employees worked, as a rule, full time; but during the spring and summer of 1885 work was slack, and they were subject to reduced time. The factories are in good condition, the

* In the early part of 1886 the Baltimore Union No. 6 largely increased its membership. It numbers about 350 men. In February, 1886, the union resolved to make eight hours a day's work in May, 1886.

men intelligent and generally provident in their habits. Every description of machinery for wood and metal work is used in this industry. One factory has in use a special machine for spinning steel wire for piano springs, and has fitted up an Action department with machinery for making the action of piano-fortes, a portion of the instrument which was, and is, by some firms, imported from Germany or bought in New York.

Mill hands running machines receive from \$10 to \$15 per week.

Cabinetmakers employed on case work, that is making frames, falling-boards, end pieces, key bottoms, etc., receive from \$9 to \$14 per case. The average wages when fully employed is \$14 per week.

Cabinetmakers employed on what is termed "fly finishing," that is in hanging tops and falling boards, scroll work, etc., are piece-workers. They can earn from \$10 to \$16 per week. Cabinetmakers working on sounding boards, who glue up boards, put in ribs and bridges, fit the boards, adjust plates, and put in pins to hold the strings, are piece-workers. They can earn from \$16 to \$18 per week.

Cabinetmakers who work in the key shop are employed under the contract system. They can earn from \$12 to \$16 per week.

Carvers engaged on the ornamental work of the cases are also employed under the contract system; they earn from \$8 to \$10 per week.

Varnishers are paid by the piece and by the day; boys earn from \$3 to \$5 per week, and men from \$10 to \$15.

Hands employed in the finishing shop are engaged in fitting the action of the instrument; it is a special trade, workmen are paid by the piece; they receive from \$9 to \$15 per each instrument. Good workmen can make from \$18 to \$20 per week.

Hands employed in the regulating department adjust the action of the piano, with regard to sound and tune, and to the easy play of the keys, work of action, etc. It is a special trade, confined to piano manufacture, and requires a correct ear for music. Wages range from \$12 to \$18 per week.

There is only one factory which employs hands in the manufacture of the piano action. The work is a special trade. Men and boys are employed. Boys range from 13 to 17 years of age, and earn from \$3 to \$5 per week; men earn from \$8 to \$15 per week.

The day's work in this trade is, as a rule, 10 hours, and the trade will average 287 working days in the year.*

PICTURE-FRAMES AND MIRRORS.

This industry employs an average of 300 hands. Business has been dull. When work is plentiful there is a demand for gilders. The average time made is 261 working days in the year. Girls are employed at the finishing table. Gilders wages are from \$12 to \$13 per week; frame-joiners and finishers from \$10 to \$12; female labor from \$4 to \$6.

There is another union in the furniture trade called the "Furniture Workers' Association of North America," which consists of all trades unions that comprise the furniture trade, including cabinetmakers, carvers, turners, upholsterers, piano-makers, machine-workers, varnishers and gilders. This association maintains friendly relations with societies of its kind, and promotes the co-operation of the trades in general. The congress of this union held at Cincinnati, declared for a normal working day of eight hours as indispensably necessary; that no master should employ children under 15 years of age; that public school instruction should be obligatory until the age of 15 years, and that such instruction to the highest degrees should be gratuitous. They further recommended the establishment of an independent workingmen's party to elect representa-

* See Chapter VI., "Strikes—Pianomakers."

tives of the working class to the legislative bodies of the country. They advocated systems of co-operation; recommended the establishment of labor bureaus; demanded that employers should be held fully responsible for injuries to workmen arising from accident or negligence; declared for unlimited solidarity among working men, and condemned secret organizations of labor as an obstacle to the labor movement.

I have come into personal contact with hundreds of the wage-workers of this State, and I believe that the ideas formulated by the congress of this union very fully express the views entertained by the thoughtful minds among the working classes of all branches of our industry.

GLASS MANUFACTURE.

This is an old industry in the State of Maryland, dating back to 1790. There are at present 16 factories, 14 of which are located in Baltimore City. Eight of these factories manufacture window glass, six are engaged in the manufacture of bottles, one makes only thin glass tumblers. Of this number two factories are situated in Cumberland. The average number of hands employed in these establishments is 1,500, including about 25 girls. In March, 1885, the citizens of Cambridge organized to establish a glass factory near that city. Sand, pronounced of superior quality for glass manufacture, is said to be abundant in the locality. During the month of May, 1885, the "Annapolis Glass Company of Anne Arundel county" was incorporated, the intention being to establish a glass factory in the city of Annapolis; the capital stock of this company was placed at \$15,000, divided in 3,000 shares of \$5 each. Neither of these enterprises had gone into operation at the writing of this report.

The glassblowers of Baltimore City organized a co-operative glass manufacturing company in Baltimore, which was duly incorporated during the month of August, 1885. The

capital stock was placed at \$10,000, divided into 100 shares of \$100 each. They have erected a factory at Hullsville, on the line of the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, in Baltimore County, just beyond the limits of Baltimore City. The enterprise is flourishing, and promises to prove a success. This undertaking grew out of a contention between the operatives employed by the firm of Baker Brothers and their employers,* and is controlled by the workmen interested.

The fine white sand found along the course of the Severn river, and also at Hancock, Washington county, is especially adapted to glass manufacture. Soda-ash and other materials is imported. This is one of the most arduous industries examined by this Bureau. The blowing is laborious, and the men labor clad in the scantiest clothing before the fierce heat of the furnaces. Fires are lit on the 1st day of September, and continue burning until the 30th day of June, thus making ten months' work in the year, which time is called the "blast."

The standard of wages to be paid during the continuance of the "blast" is arranged in a schedule by the "Glass-blowers' League," Eastern division, at an annual convention of the members; and the list of prices so arranged is presented to the manufacturers, and when accepted, is regarded as the scale of wages for that blast. In making bottles, the "pots" hold over one ton of glass. The "batch" is put in at about 5 o'clock P. M., and is ready for the blowers by 7 o'clock A. M., on the following day. The batch mixer, who compounds the material of which the glass is made, receives \$12 per week. Helpers receive \$7.50 per week.

Shearers.

These hands, sometimes called "teasers," smelt the glass; they must have a thorough knowledge of the composition and nature of glass. A boss shearer receives \$100 per month; under shearers receive \$9 to \$10 per week.

* See Chapter VI., "Strikes—Glassworkers."

Blowers.

These hands blow the glass into shape; they use pipes four feet six inches in length, weighing from 1 to 12 pounds. Two blowers work to each pot in the furnace, and are attended by boys who gather glass on the pipe, attend to the moulds and convey the ware to the annealing ovens, etc. Blowers work until the glass is exhausted in the "pot;" the average time per day is about 8 hours. They are paid by the piece, *i. e.* by the gross and dozen. Bottles ranging from $\frac{1}{4}$ to 12 ounces by the gross, from 60 cents to \$1.50 per gross; bottles ranging from 14 to 32 ounces by the dozen, from 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents to 16 cents per dozen; half-gallon bottles, 20 cents per dozen; sixteen gallon bottles, 16 cents each, etc. These were the figures for the "blast" of 1884-85. Blowers working at these prices, can earn \$25 per week.

Gatherers.

These are boys who gather the glass on the pipes for the use of the blower; they range from 16 to 18 years of age, and can earn \$5 per week.

Tending boys.

Some of these boys are very small, ranging from nine years of age upward. They receive from 40 to 55 cents per day.

Gaffers.

The "gaffer" puts the rim on the neck of the bottle. He works at a small furnace; he can make \$25 per week.

Apprentices

receive one-half journeymen's prices, and after the first year of their apprenticeship will earn from \$8 to \$10 per week.

Laying up men.

These hands attend to the ovens in which the ware is annealed. They earn \$8 per week.

Packers.

These hands examine the ware and pack it for market. Only perfect ware is credited to the blower. Boss packers receive \$10 per week; assistant packers \$9 per week. There are about three packers to a factory.

Mouldmakers.

This hand is an experienced metal worker. He makes the iron moulds into which the glass is blown to form the bottles, and designs and engraves the lettering and ornamental work. There are only two or three in the State. Very many of the moulds used in Maryland factories are made in other states. A mouldmaker receives \$20 per week per annum. He oftens works over time.

Blacksmiths

repair pipes and tools and do general work; they receive \$12 per week per annum.

The bottle blowers are strongly organized in the "druggists' ware glassblower's league." Branch No. 8 of the Eastern division governs bottleblowers in the State of Maryland. This union is very secret in its operations, and the Bureau has not been able to gain much information respecting its working. It is certainly well supported by its members.

The glass works which manufacture exclusively fine table glass, in Cumberland, Alleghany county, is a joint stock company, skilled workmen only holding stock. Mixers receive \$9 per week, teasers, \$10, blowers, \$25, gatherers, \$2.25 per day; boys, 65 cents per day. The hands work in crews, 5 hands to a crew. They have 9 crews working, and the work is continued the year round. The stockholders all work in the industry and proportionately share the profits. "Lehrsmen" attending annealing ovens receive \$1.25 per day; glazing boys, 75 cents. Girls working on finishing machine are paid by the piece—average 75 cents per day; packers,

\$10 per week; assorters, \$10 per week. Wages in this work have remained the same during 1884-85. This work is not regulated by union rules. Trade was reported as having been good, but with a tendency to fall off.

Window Glass Factories.

The manufacture of window glass is a distinct industry from the bottle trade. It is, by far, the more laborious, and is governed in its methods and wages by special rules. The prices earned by batch mixers and shearers are the same as those quoted in the bottle trade. Glass for window panes requires special care in the smelting. Two shearers work on the smelting and two on the blowing of an 8-pot furnace.

The blowers employed in a window glass factory work five days in the week and 11 hours per day. They commence at 1 A. M. Monday morning, dividing the time in such a way as to allow for smelting, by which Friday is omitted, and the last blowing is finished at 4 P. M. on Saturday. There are 217 working days in the year.

The quality of the glass is governed by the imperfections. There are four qualities. The glass made in Maryland is generally third and fourth quality. Some double thick glass is made, but no plate glass. The wages paid in the several establishments differ, owing to this variation in the quality. The estimates given in this report are based on all the prices paid. The pipe used in window glass manufacture weighs 16 pounds, and the glass from 16 to 28 pounds. To blow the cylinder of glass, therefore, requires the exercise of great strength and skill.

Gatherers.

These hands are young men who assist the blowers, there being one blower and one gatherer to each pot, and eight pots to each furnace. The gatherer collects the molten glass on the pipe and moulds it into shape for the blower. He wears an adjustable wooden mask to protect his face from the fire. His wages are from \$17 to \$18 per week.

Blowers.

There are double thick and single thick glass blowers. They blow the glass in the form of a cylinder, about 56 inches long and $12\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter. This makes a sheet 36×56 inches. Single thick blowers will average 45 boxes of glass per week, each box containing 100 square feet. Double thick blowers are confined by the rules to 30 boxes per week.

In the scale of wages paid for window glass blowing there are 17 "brackets" or divisions of prices, ranging according to quality and size from 35 cents to \$1.60 per 100 feet; to which, on the scale worked on during the blast of 1884-85, 10 per cent. and 5 per cent. was added as increase of wages, 5 per cent. being the increase of said blast. That is to say, if a blower was entitled to \$100 wages as per scale, he would receive \$100—plus 10 per cent.=\$110; plus 5 per cent.=\$115.

Window glass blowers, by an arrangement with the employers, can draw on account \$12 per week, but there are 11 settlements of wages in the course of the blast. Double glass blowers earn between \$27 and \$28 per week per annum. Single glass blowers between \$19 and \$20 per week per annum. Blowers crack their own cylinders, which adds about one hour per day to their work, the actual time of blowing being about 10 hours.

Flatteners.

These hands flatten out the cylinders into sheets in an oven. A flattener receives 25 per cent. of the blowers' wages. Two flatteners work with every eight-pot furnace, one blower to each pot. If a proportion of the glass made is double thick he will earn between \$21 and \$22 per week per annum.

Cutters.

One cutter cuts for two blowers. He can cut 15 boxes of 100 feet per box per day. The cutter grades the quality

of the glass, and is responsible for his judgment. He receives $26\frac{1}{2}$ cents per 100 square feet for single thick glass, and 40 cents per 100 square feet for double thick. He can earn between \$21 and \$22 per week per annum.

Window glass makers are very strongly organized in the Knights of Labor, in which body they form a special assembly.

IRON INDUSTRY.

Furnaces and Mills.

In the monograph on the manufacture of iron and steel, included in the census report of 1880, we find it said that "the prominence of Maryland as an iron producing State was relatively much greater in 1870 than in 1880. In the former year it was fifth in rank, and in the latter year it was twelfth."

This is a concise epitome of the course of the iron industry in Maryland. Since 1880 there has been no evidence of any advance in this direction; but, on the contrary, during the last two years there has been a further retrogression. It is true that for some time past the iron trade, generally, has been greatly depressed, and relatively, Maryland is not exceptional in this connection. Some of the largest works in the State have been closed during the period of the existence of this office. I cite, for example, the Ashland iron company's* and the Abbott iron company's establishments. The latter company owns a block of ground in Baltimore City containing eight acres, with mills and furnaces, etc., and at one time gave employment to 1,000 men; the buildings stand idle and desolate now, with no expectation of resumption. These works are three-fourths owned by Pennsylvania stockholders.

The reason usually given for this condition of the iron trade is, that the manufacture of steel has so increased and is conducted to such advantage as to practically rule iron

* This company has resumed operations since the writing of this report.

out of the market. Whether that is so or not I shall not discuss here, but I will note one fact, that with the State rich in ore, and that of the best quality; and with establishments ready to go into operation, the sound of human industry is heard no more in the places mentioned, and the blackened furnaces stand as monuments of a prosperity which, for the time at least, has passed away.

The principal concerns which have been in operation are the Cumberland rolling mills, owned by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company. This mill has been occasionally shut down, and runs less than full time during the summer months. All productions are used by the company. The mills make bars, plates, girders, rivets and spikes. They employ 376 hands at wages ranging from \$2 to \$8 per day; 151 laborers at \$1.10 and \$1.25, and 21 youths from 16 to 20 years of age, whose wages range from 60 cents to \$1. Most of the hands work by the ton, and prices vary accordingly.

The Catoctin iron furnace, situated at the foot of the Blue Ridge mountains in Frederick county, on the turnpike road, not far from Mechanicstown, W. M. R. R. It employs from 50 to 100 hands, and, after a period of stagnation, resumed work in the fall of 1885. The hands live in stone cottages in the neighborhood of the works. They are employed in the manufacture of pig iron.

The McCullough iron works at North East, in Cecil county, which, in the manufacture of a superior quality of sheet iron, employs between one and two hundred hands.

The iron furnaces, which manufacture with charcoal, notably the Stickney iron works of Baltimore City, employing from 50 to 75 hands, and a small rolling mill in South Baltimore, principally employed in rolling steel, but without (apparently) affording much prosperity or comfort to the employees, who look like the straggling rear guard of an army of workers which has gone before.

This trade is so reduced that I shall satisfy the requirements of my report by directing attention to the table of "Maryland Industries," under the head of "Iron Industry," contained in the chapter on "Wages."

I estimate the number of hands actually engaged in the mills and furnaces of this State, at the time of writing this report, to be about 900.

MACHINE SHOPS AND FOUNDRIES.

I estimate the number of hands employed in these industries to be about 4,000.

Moulders.

Hands worked about eight months during 1884. This trade is more likely to be out of employment during the winter months—287 days is the average working time per annum. Wages range from \$1.50 to \$2 per day. The rate was reduced during 1885, prices falling 15 per cent. Ten hours constitute a day's work. Helpers receive \$1.25 per day, and coremakers \$1.50.

Stove Moulders.

The stove moulders number about 730 men, including mounters, filers and fitters. There has been a downward tendency in the trade, resulting in a reduction of the number of hands employed in the various foundries, and wages have fallen 10 per cent. within the last two years. The stove moulders are organized in the "International Iron Moulders' Union of North America." A local strike occurred at Port Deposit in 1885.* Moulders work by the piece, the average wages earned being \$2.50 per day, with a working time of about 261 days in the year. Filers and finishers receive \$2 per day, but average a greater number of working days. Laborers earn from \$1.05 to \$1.50. Very great complaint is made by this trade of the system of penitentiary contract labor employed in the manufacture of stoves.

* See Chapter VI., "Strikes—Stove Moulders."

They claim that manufacturers plead the unfair competition to which the trade is thus subjected as an excuse for the reduction of wages.

Blacksmiths.

Blacksmiths, as a rule, find steady employment. The average number of working days is 287. Hands work ten hours per day. The summer months are the dull season. Wages range from \$1.50 to \$2.25. Good hands will find employment the year round. Wages in the country shops are lower, \$1.50 and \$1.75 being the usual rate. Helpers receive \$1.25 per day.

Boilermakers.

From all reports, employment in this industry has been steady. About two months in the year is likely to be slack time with boilermakers. They average 261 working days in the year. Wages are from \$2.25 to \$2.75 per day, according to the class of work on which they are employed. Helpers receive \$1.50 per day.

Machinists.

Work was steady during the greater portion of 1884, but reductions to nine and eight hours in time occurred towards the fall of the year in many of the establishments, and, consequently, there was a proportionate reduction in wages —about 10 per cent. Very many men were reported out of employment. A number of hands from the railroad shops were seeking outside work in the spring of 1885. About three-quarters of the men in this industry are English speaking, the remainder being Germans. There is not so great a subdivision in this trade in Maryland as in some of the other states, but there is a tendency in that direction in the management of some of the larger establishments. In such shops it is becoming customary to restrict hands to one machine, and make them specialists; such as lathe hands, planer hands, vice hands, etc. This class of workmen receive \$2 per day, and the average wage of large shops per man is \$12 per week.

Many employers complain, in their reports to this Bureau, of the want of fully qualified mechanics, especially such as can adapt themselves to outside work. It is this class of workman who commands the higher wage of \$2.50 per day, and who is often retained the year round on his individual merit as a mechanic. The workman more generally out of employment in the machine trade is the bench hand. Apprentices serve four years, and receive from \$1.50 to \$5 per week, according to length of service. Machinists work ten months in the year, or an average of 261 working days per annum. Cheap emigrant labor, secured on board the ocean steamers at Locust Point, comes in contact with the machinists in Baltimore City, and has a tendency to reduce wages. Helpers receive \$1.25 per day.

Patternmakers.

This trade is small. Shops do not employ more than three or four hands, including the proprietor. Machine, marine and house patternmaking is done by the same hand. Some machine shops employ their own patternmaker, but many have their work done by small shops outside. In Baltimore City journeymen receive from \$2.25 to \$2.50 per day. Prices throughout the State for general hands working in machine shops and foundries is about 22 cents per hour, or an average of \$2 per day. Apprentices serve four years, and are paid from \$2 to \$6 per week. Ten hours constitute a day's work. This work is about the same all the year round; full time is made by competent workmen. There has been a slight falling off in wages within the last few years. This trade is not affected by labor-saving machinery, the great variety of patterns requiring all work to be made by hand.

Filecutters and Cutlers.

The only file factory of any size in the State is closed. Some small shops, employing one or two hands, carry on a

retail trade, and in these places filecutters make \$1.75 per day, with about half time. There are no manufacturing cutleries in Maryland. Work is confined to the demand for jobbing work in the retail trade. Wages are \$2.50 per day.

Horseshoers.

There is steady work at this trade; no good man need be out of employment. Hands work full time the year round, and earn from \$2.50 to \$2.75 per day. This trade is very strongly organized. "The Journeymen Horseshoers' Union, No. 2," being the Maryland branch of the National union, has its headquarters in Baltimore City. The manufacture of horse shoes and nails by machinery has reduced the grade of skill among the younger men of this trade, but has increased the capacity for work. Horseshoers employed by the passenger railway companies receive \$15 and \$16 per week, steady employment being given the year round.*

LEATHER INDUSTRY.

Tanneries.

The tanneries, which are principally situated in the western portion of the State, have been running full time, although they have suffered from the general depression and report trade as "dull" during 1885. Sixty per cent. of the hands employed are German. Unskilled labor is largely colored. The number of hands employed varies with the season of the year, the force being greatly increased during bark peeling time or the months of April and May. Labor is paid \$1 to \$1.25 per day, and "beam" hands \$9 to \$10 per week. There is no scarcity of hands.

Curriers.

This trade, engaged in the manufacture of calfskin leather for harness and shoe uppers, gives employment to about 70

* The machinists, blacksmiths and helpers, and the patternmakers of Baltimore City formed separate trade organizations in the spring of 1886.

hands. The labor is divided into "knifemen" and "tablehands." For a very long time past wages in this industry have remained stationary; \$8 for "tablehands" and \$10 for "knifemen" per week has been the standard, and constant, steady work the rule. Hands work 10 hours per day, except on Saturday, when they work nine hours. They manufacture a superior class of goods; doing the whole work "out and up;" but no fluctuations of the leather market has altered the rule of their wages or the monotony of their employment. There is no scale of prices ruling in Maryland. A few hands may receive \$13 per week, but they are the exception.

About 100 hands are employed in preparing sheep and kid skins for shoe linings and uppers. Work has been steady. The rate of wages, as compared with other states, is low. These hands are piece-workers, and the following are the various subdivisions, with the prices per piece and the average product—

Pullers.—Lining, washing and pulling, $3\frac{3}{4}$ cents per skin; average 50 skins per day.

Beam Hands.—Twenty-five cents per dozen skins; average, six dozen per day. During the busy season of the summer, for about three months, these men turn out one or two dozen extra, but in the spring of the year they reduce to five dozen per day.

Tanners.—Eight and nine dollars per week; steady work.

Finishers.—White kid, 70 cents per dozen; average 15 dozen per week. Black kid, 90 cents per dozen; average 12 dozen per week.

Coloring.—Twenty cents per dozen; average eight dozen per day.

Trimmers.—Trimming edges, \$10 per week.

Ironers.—Eight cents per dozen; average 16 dozen per day.

The trimmers and ironers are usually women, and as the shops engaged in this industry are small, this work generally falls to the lot of the employer's family. Boys employed as oilers receive \$2.50 to \$3 per week.*

Morocco.

White and colored men are employed in this industry in Baltimore City. Though the Bureau made several efforts to obtain the details of this branch, it did not meet with much success. I am inclined to believe that tanners' wages are very low. Ten hours constitutes a day's work, and they receive from \$6 to \$8 per week. Shavers receive 20 cents per dozen; they can make on full work \$15 per week. Finishers, \$12 per week; and sewers (girls), \$6 per week.

Boots and Shoes.

The factories for the manufacture of boots and shoes are, with one or two exceptions, situated in Baltimore City. Including a number of small places employing a few hands, but not shops for custom work or repairs, there are about 35 establishments in the State.

The actual trade of boot and shoe making is principally confined to eighteen large factories in Baltimore City, which employ, in the various branches of manufacture, an aggregate of 1,000 men and 400 women and children.

Men employed in the manufacture of women's and children's shoes work 10 hours per day and an average of nine months per year.

There is a greater subdivision of labor in this trade than in any other reported; and as many as 18 distinct labor-saving machines are used in a well-appointed shop.

The factory hands in the shoe trade are well organized in the Knights of Labor. Some factories work exclusively union hands and have their shop organization, to which only members of the Knights of Labor are admitted.

* The tanners and curriers formed a trade union in February, 1886.

Among the rules adopted by such shop organizations, as above referred to, is the rule, that no advance shall be demanded by the members between seasons. When branches desire an advance, they must state the same at the regular meetings in May and November; the union submits such demands to the employer.

Taking one factory, where 32 men were employed, the average of wages was as follows: \$1.83 per day, \$11 per week, and \$46.58 per month. This is, however, above the general average of the trade, in the manufacture of ladies' and children's shoes and gaiters.

Cutters

receive from \$10 to \$12 per week; boys engaged in cutting linings \$4.50 per week. In the stock fitting shops boys engaged in turning up channels and putting slips on the out-sole, etc., receive \$2.50 per week.

Lasters.

These hands are paid by the piece, receiving from $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pair for children's, to $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pair for women's shoes, and 2 cents extra for box toes. Ten dollars per week wages can be made at these prices.

Tacker and McKay Sewer.

This hand receives 1 cent per pair for sewing and $\frac{3}{4}$ of a cent per pair for tacking. From \$12 to \$14 per week wages can be made at these prices.

Beater Out.

This hand, working on machine work, receives $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pair. Working on hand work, he receives 2 cents per pair. Eleven dollars per week can be made at these prices.

Heelers.

Machine heelers receive 1 cent to $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents per pair for single soles, 2 cents per pair for "turn" soles. A boy, who is employed by the operative, is required to assist on this machine. From \$12 to \$15 can be earned per week at these prices.

Trimming Edges.

Hands engaged in trimming edges can make \$9 per week. Hands engaged on shaving heels and trimming turn-edges can make \$12 per week. Hands engaged on breasting and roughing heels can make \$15 per week.

Heel Burnisher.

This hand, in addition to burnishing, generally scours the heel. He receives from 1 cent to 2 cents per pair. Eleven dollars per week can be earned at these prices.

Edge Setter.

For "heel work" an edge setter receives from 1 to 2 cents per pair. For "springs" he receives $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 cents per pair. Eleven dollars per week can be earned at these prices. A scourer working on the sand-papering machine is paid \$1.75 per day.

Bottom Finishing.

A "shanker" hand can earn \$10 per week; a shank burnisher can earn \$8 per week.

Blacking Heels.

This is boy's work; he can earn \$3.50 per week.

Women Operatives.

Women engaged in boot and shoe manufacture are divided into the following branches. The prices received vary considerably, according to the size and quality of the work—

Liningmaker.

Receives from 4 cents to 24 cents per dozen, and can earn from \$4 to \$6 per week.

Closer.

Works on outsides. Receives from 3 cents to 9 cents per dozen; can earn from \$3 to \$5 per week.

Barrer.

Works on seams. Receives 6 cents to 18 cents per dozen; can earn from \$3 to \$5 per week.

Hanging Linings and Top Stitching.

In small factories one hand does this work and receives from $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents to 75 cents per dozen; can earn \$8 per week. Where the work is divided between two hands, each will earn \$5 per week.

Trimmer.

Works on linings; receives 1 cent per pair, and earns from \$4 to \$6 per week.

Turner.

Receives 1 cent per pair, and can earn from \$4 to \$6 per week.

Button-hole Cutters, Workers and Finishers.

As a rule these hands do not work in the shoe factory, the work being done outside by contract; in fact, it has become a separate industry. These hands are paid 10 and 12 cents per hundred, and earn from \$3 to \$5 per week. Children employed threading up, inking, punching eyelets, etc., work the same number of hours, and make \$1.50 to \$2 per week. The machine for making button-holes is driving hand labor out of the trade. Button sewers are paid 3 cents per dozen, and earn from \$3 to \$4 per week.

Vamper.

Receives 9 cents, and 18 to 24 cents per dozen, and can earn from \$6 to \$8 per week. This is the best paid branch of female industry in the shoe trade. Children employed in preparing shoes for vamper, in sorting and sizing, or in stock lining, etc., receive from \$1.50 to \$2 per week.

The spring and fall are the dull seasons for labor in the shoe factory. The hours of labor are 10 in busy seasons and 8 in dull seasons. Female hands lost considerable time during 1885. The average number of months employed in the year is 9. The wages they are capable of earning vary in the different departments, and by the capacity of the hand, so much that it is difficult to average female labor in this trade, but I believe that \$4 per week for 9 months per year is the correct figure.

MEN'S BOOTS AND SHOES.

In the manufacture of men's goods there is a great variety of price, according to the quality and finish of the shoe. The head cutter, who is usually the foreman, receives about \$20 per week.

Skiving.

A hand employed in the cutting department to work on skiving receives \$10 per week.

Lining Cutter.

This hand is usually a boy. He receives \$4 per week.

Fitting Department.

Women are employed in this department, and all the work on the upper is done by female labor. The prices paid per dozen range, for men's wear, from \$1.37 to \$5.75, and for boy's wear from \$1.20 to \$3.40. The highest prices are for high boots. Women can earn at this work, and these prices, a weekly wage of \$6.

Stock-fitting Department.

Men engaged in preparing bottom stock, such as cutting out sides, shaping soles, etc., receive for hand sewed $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pair, and for machine sewed $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pair. Ten dollars per week can be made at these prices.

Lasters.

Lasters on hand sewed work, who prepare the work for sewing the insole or "welt," receive for lasting boots (plain) 19 cents per pair; for shoes and gaiters (plain) 15 cents per pair; for shoes and gaiters (box toe) 18 cents per pair. Ten dollars per week can be made at these prices.

Sewer.

This hand sews the "welt" and receives for boots 31 cents per pair, and for shoes and gaiters 27 cents per pair. He can earn from \$9 to \$10 per week.

Rounder.

This hand rounds out the sole ready for stitching. He

receives for boots 18 cents per pair, and for shoes and gaiters 16 cents per pair. Ten dollars per week can be earned at these prices.

Stitchers.

Hands who stitch the out-sole to the "welt" receive for boots 40 cents per pair, for shoes and gaiters 35 cents per pair; \$10.50 per week can be earned at these prices.

Heeling.

Hands who work on hand-sewed men's boots receive 10 cents per pair; for shoes and gaiters 8 cents per pair. \$10.50 per week can be made at these prices.

Shaving Heel and Trimming Forepart.

These hands receive for men's boots 10 cents per pair; for shoes and gaiters 9 cents per pair. \$10.50 per week can be made at these prices.

Burnishing.

Burnishers, who burnish the heel, top-piece and forepart, and set the seat-wheel, receive for (single sole) men's boots 9 cents per pair; for slip sole 10 cents per pair; for shoes and gaiters, 7 and 8 cents per pair. They can earn at these figures \$10.50 per week.

Scourers.

Hands who sandpaper and prick-stitch receive for hand-made boots, shoes and gaiters $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pair. They can earn at these prices \$10.50 per week.

Bottom Finishing.

This hand generally works by the week, and receives \$16 wages. A good workman can average 250 pair per week; he blacks the shank, cleans down, acids bottom, and generally finishes the shoe.

MEN'S BOOTS AND SHOES.

Lasters.

On machine-made boots and shoes lasters receive for shoes and gaiters from 8 cents for boys' shoes up to 17 cents for

men's boots per pair. One cent additional is paid per pair for box toes; when hands make their own boxes they receive two and three cents extra per pair. Lasters engaged at these prices can earn \$9.50 per week.

Tacking and Wax Thread Stitching Machine.

An operator receives for this work one cent per pair for tacking, and two cents per pair for stitching. Average wages per annum \$12 per week. When an operative works in a large factory, and is kept busy stitching on the McKay machine, and receives two cents per pair; his average wages per week per annum will be \$15.

Beating Out and Nailing Heel.

Prices paid in this branch range from $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents for boys' shoes to 10 cents for men's boots. Two rows of nails around the heel is paid for at the rate of 2 cents extra per pair. These hands can earn \$10 per week.

Shaving Heels and Trimming Forepart.

Prices paid for this work range from 5 cents for boys' shoes to 10 cents for men's boots. There is a surplus of hands in this branch, and they do not make more than half time. The average wage per annum is \$12 per week. A good hand, with full work, could make \$25 per week.

Heel-trimming Machine.

An operator will receive $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pair for boots and gaiters. He can earn \$12 per week.

Burnishers of Heel, Toe-piece and Forepart.

Prices for this work range from 5 cents per pair, for boys' shoes, to 7 cents per pair for men's boots. These hands can earn \$10.50 per week.

The scourer and bottomi finisher make the same prices on machine work that they do on the hand-sewed.

Boot and shoe factories are as a rule in good condition.

Better provision might be made against fire,* only two having fire-escapes. The sexes work apart, and are provided with necessary accommodations. The price of weekly wages contained in this article is, with the exception of two quotations, the weekly price which can be earned when the hand is in full work. For a proper average of the earnings of the trade the year round, reference must be made to "Boots and Shoes," table of "Maryland Industries," contained in the chapter on "Wages" of this report.

The hands engaged in this industry are an intelligent body, generally well informed, and careful for the interest and protection of their trade. To some of their number this office is under obligations for information supplied.

BROOMMAKERS.

The trade of broommaking is in a very reduced condition, work being uncertain and wages low. For the greater portion of the year 1885, broommakers in Baltimore City were either out of employment or only occasionally occupied. During the months of March and April of that year, which ought to have been a busy season in this trade, upward of 70 hands were idle in Baltimore. The industry is conducted in a small way in other towns of the State, but it is practically brought to the point of stagnation by the introduction of goods made in penitentiaries in other States. Broommakers have not averaged more than \$4 per week during 1885.†

BUTCHERS.

There are about 1,500 butchers in the State of Maryland, who employ in the aggregate 5,000 hands. Journeymen butchers are paid \$6 to \$8 and their board per week; they work all the year round. The majority of journeymen are Germans. This trade has suffered great reverses in Baltimore City, consequent, on the shipment and sale of Western

* See Chapter VII., "Blank 1320," also Chapter VIII., "Factory Inspection Law."

† See Chapter VII., "Blank 1093."

killed meats. Stalls in the markets, which were valued three years ago at \$4,000 and \$5,000, can be purchased now for \$2,000, and the decline of the market for home slaughtered meats will be at once appreciated by a consideration of the following table—

TABLE Showing the Receipts of Live Stock at the Baltimore Drove Yards in 1884 and 1885.

	1884.	1885.	Reduction in Numbers received during 1885.
Cattle	208,328	182,971	25,357
Sheep	483,433	422,591	60,842
Hogs.....	498,463	449,183	49,280

However favorably disposed the working people may be towards the "cheap" meat placed on the market by the great Western monopolies, it would be well to remember that the home market keeps the price of Western meat in check; also, that the support of the Western system is a serious injury to home industry, and throws out of employment butchers, drivers, coopers, hostlers, and other labor employed in the slaughter and packing-houses. Thus, during the winter of 1885-86, in three months the killing of sheep in Baltimore City fell off 4,000 head, and when we consider that, by the rapid process of slaughtering in Chicago, 10 men can kill the same number of animals that 125 men can in our houses, it will be no wonder that there has been a reduction in our home industry.

Hands engaged in the butcher trade are generally permanently employed, and whether work be dull or brisk retain their situations the year round.*

BAKERS.

Journeymen bread bakers principally board with their

* Both the boss and journeymen butchers organized societies during the spring of 1886.

employers and receive \$7.50 per week. The hours are long, the work very confining and constant, and the baking houses being principally in cellars are very much in need of proper ventilation. Hands in this trade are principally Germans. The

Cake and Cracker

factories employ 115 men, 104 boys, and 22 girls. The boys attend the machines, and the girls are employed icing and packing the cakes and crackers. Girls are paid by the piece, from 3 cents for ginger cakes per barrel, to 8 cents for water crackers. They become very expert at this work. The improved machinery introduced into this branch of the baking business has created a revolution in the trade. The increased capacity to produce may be appreciated from a consideration of the following facts: By the old system of hand baking 7 men and 5 boys could manufacture 5 barrels of flour, producing 185 pounds of crackers per barrel, in one day. Under the present system 7 men and 14 boys can run out 60 barrels of flour, yielding 180 pounds of crackers per barrel, in one day. This would require the use of two cutting machines. To make the contrast plainer, it may be said in round figures that whereas, under the old system, the capacity was to bake 5 barrels, under the new it is to bake 30 barrels.

Again, whereas it formerly took two men and one boy one hour to squeeze out one bucket of soft dough for cakes, the soft dough machine, with one man to fill and two boys to feed, will do the same work in 15 minutes; or, in other words, this machine does the work of 30 hands. Hands in this industry are employed the year round, the busy season being in the fall. The various subdivisions of the labor, with the wages earned, will be found by reference to the wages table contained in Chapter IV.*

* In February, 1886, the cake and cracker bakers organized a trade union and were incorporated in the Knights of Labor.

BARBERS.

Barbers employed in the State of Maryland are about two-thirds white and the remainder colored; the white barbers are principally Germans. Very little of interest can be said respecting this trade. They are employed unreasonably long hours in the cities, but are prohibited by law from working on Sunday (*a*). Journeymen earn from \$6 to \$12 per week (*b*).

STREET RAILWAY EMPLOYEES.

While perhaps this class of labor does not fall within the strict limits of my present inquiry, yet, as a very large body of men find occupation on the various roads, I have considered it serviceable to present the following brief review: The majority of men employed on street railways are those who fail to obtain work in their various trades, and engage in car driving, or conducting, as a make-shift until better times are met with. A certain proportion become accustomed to the life and follow it as a permanency, but the very great majority are constantly changing. Political influence has very much to do with the employment of drivers and conductors on the street roads running in Baltimore City; and while, as a rule, the men are shrewd and sharp, they lack the methodical stability met with in the shops and factories, and which is the result of constantly following one occupation. Most men employed on the city passenger railroads are away from home eighteen hours out of the twenty-four. The hostlers almost live in the stable, (*c*) and,

(*a*) See Chapter VIII., "Laws—Barbers."

(*b*) A very large and strong union of boss and journeymen barbers was formed in January, 1886, which adopted a uniform scale of prices to govern the trade in Baltimore City.

(*c*) By an Act of 1886 the hours of work for street-car employees was limited to twelve per day (see Chapter VIII., note "Car Employees,") and an effort on the part of the assembly of the Knights of Labor, in which they organized in the early part of 1886, to enforce the payment of \$2 for twelve hours' labor, resulted in a strike, which was not in the main successful, although wages on some lines were slightly

taken altogether, the life of all railway employees is certainly a hard one, and the men are poorly paid. The employees in this occupation include stable boss, drivers, conductors, substitutes, hostlers, horseshoers, line-men, car-cleaners, carpenters and hill boys, and altogether the roads employ upward of one thousand hands. On many of the lines drivers and conductors are paid for the trip, on others they work seventeen and eighteen hours for \$2. The sub-division of the labor, with varying rates of wages, will be found in Chapter IV.

CIGAR TRADE.

There are about 370 establishments engaged in the manufacture of cigars in the State. They employ upward of 1,000 men. This branch of labor varies, owing to a tendency to travel; many men are constantly moving, working for a time in one state, and moving to another, and even to Canada.

The union hands are connected with the "Cigarmakers' International Union of America," organized in New York City in 1864, and having over 200 branches extending through the United States and Canada.

The local union in Baltimore, No. 11, has about 700 members and controls hands working in the smaller towns of the State, there being a local union in Hagerstown. By the rules of the International Union, traveling cigarmakers can obtain a loan on their card of membership to defray expenses, said loan not to exceed \$20, which is paid back to the union at the rate of 10 per cent on wages when the man secures work. A general fund for the protection of the trade is retained in the head treasury in New York. The union pays \$5 per week sick benefits, and \$40 in the event of a member's death to his heirs.

increased. The lines controlled by the Baltimore City Passenger railroad paid \$2, and their men continued at work. Taken generally at the time of printing this report, the result of the twelve-hour law was to reduce wages in proportion to the reduction of time.

The union issues a label to shops employing union hands; *i. e.*, shops that pay not less than \$7 per 1,000 for making cigars. The label is supplied free of cost, and guarantees on its face that the goods on which it is used were not made in tenement houses, nor by Coolie or Chinese labor, but by capable cigarmakers.

All hands work by the piece; \$7 per 1,000 is paid for common cigars and \$9, \$10 and \$15 for the superior grades. A man can make from 1,000 to 1,500 per week, according to skill, working nine hours per day. Cigarmakers average from \$8 to \$11 per week.

Apprentices

serve three years and receive from \$2 to \$5.50, according to the time served.

Stripper Boys

are paid from \$1 to \$5 per week, according to capacity; they range from 12 to 18 years of age.

Packers,

whose work is to sort the colors and pack the cigars, require good sight and experience of color, there being six primary colors in cigars and a great variety of shades. He will average \$15 per week in wages.

Cigarmakers' wages increased, consequent upon the reduction of the revenue tax, which resulted in the hands receiving an additional \$1 per 1,000, but during 1884 and 1885 many men have been out of employment and many working half time. Good hand-workmen and packers are the most difficult to procure; there are plenty of mould workers.

Almost all cigarmakers complain of the dust and confinement of the shops. They claim that consumption and diseases of the throat and lungs are most frequent in the trade.

A foreman in one factory, whose experience of the trade is extensive, stated that eight of nine funerals he attended were caused by consumption. The men complain, and I

believe with good reason, of the want of proper sanitary inspection of factories. We only found one place having a fire escape.

Outside of the union shops the method of subdivision of labor has been adopted; and here many women and girls find employment. This method is to employ one hand at "bunch breaking," that is bunching the quantity of filler, wrapping the binder and placing it in the mould, while another hand (and sometimes two) rolls on the wrapper. Cigars are made very rapidly in this manner, and men, women and children are employed in these factories. Bunch-breakers average, when employed, about \$1 per day. Both men and women make from \$4 to \$9 per week, according to rapidity of work; children engaged in this work make from \$2 to \$6 per week. The hands who roll wrappers receive from \$4 to \$12 per week; they make an average of about \$7.60 per week per year.

Packers in this line of manufacture receive—men, an average of \$8, and women \$6 per week.

COOPERS.

There are about 300 hands employed in this industry. The work is very diversified, and it is difficult to determine the average of the wages, because hands are constantly changing from one branch to another. The coopers who manufacture flour barrels have fallen off in work because of the custom which has been adopted of packing flour in bags, both in the foreign and domestic trade. A few of them have constant work. The price for making is 10 cents per barrel, and ordinary mechanics can make from 15 to 25 barrels per day. When not employed in this branch they work on "truck" barrels, for which they receive 6 cents, a day's work running from 30 to 40 barrels. These are used for shipping all kinds of market produce. No barrels are made of rough timber now, it being all machine stuff which is worked up.

What is called "light" work includes whiskey, oil, beef and lard barrels, etc. The whiskey barrel coopers have derived an advantage from the refusal of distillers to use the machine-made barrel. The price paid for making whiskey barrels is 75 cents; they make from 2 to 3 per day, the average wages being \$12 per week.

The only establishment that made machine whiskey barrels has suspended operations for the present. Coopers employed at the oil wharves receive \$12 per week—constant employment. Coopers employed in what is called "trimming," that is re-coopering sugar hogsheads, etc., on the wharves and in the warehouses, receive \$3 per day, and when employed by the hour 40 cents per hour. The loss of the sugar trade in the city of Baltimore has greatly reduced the number of these hands. In this connection it is well to call attention to the fact that the shipment of shooks, heads and hoops, etc., to Havana and ports in the West Indies was formerly very great, and employed a large force of men in their manufacture, besides affording valuable cargoes to vessels sailing out of the ports of Maryland. Owing, however, to the introduction of English manufactured bags, and a reduction of the duty on sugar so shipped, the exportation of cooperage has greatly and alarmingly decreased.

Table Showing the Decrease of Shipments of Cooperage from Maryland.

	1884.	1885.	Decrease.
Shooks and Heads.....	90,715	68,030	22,685
Hoops and Bundles.....	32,908	25,728	7,180
Staves.....	1,908,000	1,758,000	150,000

I venture to predict that if some remedy is not quickly applied to resuscitate the lost trade in this direction, the occupation of the Maryland cooper may be considered practically gone.

MUSICIANS.

There are about 700 professional musicians in the State. This estimate includes some county bands, whose members are employed at some other calling in their spare time. The professional musicians of Baltimore City, who may be properly so classed, number 250 performers. They are principally Germans. The Baltimore musicians, who occupy the front ranks among the good performers, have for many years been organized in the "Musical Union," founded October 2d, 1863. Their recognized price list is very elaborate, extending to 20 sections, the average earnings of musicians being \$15 per week.*

PRINTING.

The letter press printing trade is divided into two branches, viz.: newspaper and book and job printing. There are about 225 printing offices in the State. Almost all newspaper offices execute job printing. Including the monthly and weekly journals, there are 174 newspaper offices. Upward of 1,400 employees are engaged in the letter press printing, nearly one-half of which number are youths or boys.

Typographical Union No. 12 is located in Baltimore City, and numbers on its roll 275 members. The Union accepts men in every part of the State who have served an apprenticeship of five years, and attaches them to the Baltimore Union.

NEWSPAPER OFFICES.

Foremen.

Foremen engaged in the office of a morning paper work by the week and receive from \$20 to \$35 per week per annum. An assistant, or, as he is technically termed, a "make-up," receives from \$20 to \$25 per week per annum.

* In the early part of 1886 the musicians of Baltimore City combined and formed the "Mozart" Assembly of the Knights of Labor. They maintain the prices of the old "Musical Union."

Proof Reader.

A proof reader is expected to be a practical printer, and is generally a man who has worked on the "case." The position is a responsible one, and he receives \$20 per week per annum. In large offices where, late in the night, extra assistance is sometimes required, it is paid for at the rate of 40 cents per hour.

A copy holder, who works with the proof reader, receives \$20 per week per annum. In offices where youths are employed they receive from \$4 to \$5 per week.

"Galley Slinger."

This hand proves the matter in the galley. Where men are employed the wages are \$20 per week; youths \$4 to \$5 per week.

Compositors.

In well regulated offices the commercial and financial news and the shipping, marriage and death notices, are considered as two departments, and, because of their importance, are entrusted to special hands. The general news and advertising matter is set up by the staff of compositors. These are numbered, and work according to their proper order, avoiding by this arrangement any preference in the distribution of "copy," and thus tending to equalize the labor and pay of the workman. The hours which a compositor on a daily paper works are as follows: He enters the office at 11 o'clock A. M., and remains sometimes as late as 5.30 P. M. During these hours he distributes his "letter," and is engaged for one or two hours setting type. He returns to the office at 7 o'clock P. M., and should he be in the "first crowd," will probably finish work by 10 o'clock P. M.; if not he will remain, perhaps, till 3 o'clock the next morning. ("Crowds" are divisions of compositors numbering generally three hands to a crowd). By this plan, in an office employing 25 compositors, about 12 will be engaged in the office between 2 and 3 o'clock A. M.

Compositors work by the piece. In union offices they are all paid at the same rate, viz.: 40 cents per 1,000 ems. An expert compositor can set 1,000 ems per hour. The average wages of newspaper compositors, working on a morning journal under union rules, is \$15 per week. They can work every day in the year, but their average time is 313 working days.

Compositors working on evening journals are employed from about 8 A. M. to 5 o'clock P. M., including the time occupied in distributing their "letter." They are paid, when working by the week, the regulation union wages of \$16.20 per week, the full day being 10 hours, and when working by the piece they can make, receiving 35 cents per 1,000 ems, \$12 per week the year round.

Substitutes.

These hands are compositors not on the regular staff of the morning journals. They are engaged from night to night, as the opportunity offers, taking the place of regular hands who may be absent. They have their own cases in the office. The number employed is graded according to the number of regular hands. Thus, in an office employing 30 regular compositors there will be from 12 to 13 substitutes attached. Traveling printers, by this plan, are able to secure one or two day's work. There are quite a number of these migratory journeymen constantly on the move in this trade. Substitute compositors attached to a newspaper office can make \$10 per week wages.

Pressmen.

A first-class pressman will earn \$25 per week, assistants average \$12 per week.

Apprentices.

It is a rule of the typographical union that each newspaper office may receive two apprentices. They are not, however, always employed. Apprentices are paid 20 cents per 1,000 ems; they earn an average of \$5 per week.

Stereotypers.

There are very few men employed in this branch. Only the large offices in Baltimore City requiring their services. Expert workmen receive \$15 per week.

COUNTY JOURNALS.

There are no journals published outside Baltimore City whose offices are conducted under union rules. The average rate paid to journeymen compositors is 28 cents per 1,000 ems, and the average rate to apprentices 18 to 20 cents per 1,000 ems. The average wages of newspaper workmen is \$10 per week per annum in the county trade.

A review of the printing trade is convincing of the fact that it is overrun with workmen, and that a very large number of those employed are young and inexperienced hands. Reports from different parts of the State show that there is a surplus of hands offering their services as compositors, but in the midst of this plentitude of labor, a difficulty is experienced by employers in procuring good and efficient workmen. The principal reason for this seems to be the number of boys who are taken into the trade without serving a proper apprenticeship.*

Printers complain that the instruction given in their trade to boys in the public institutions is very detrimental to the best interests of the craft; and contend that if the State undertakes to assist such institutions it should fit up complete offices for the purpose, to the end that incapable workmen should not be thrust upon the legitimate trade.

A number of printing offices, conducted by men who are not practical printers, have sprung into existence during the last few years and have created a class of competition which has been injurious to the interests of the trade.

If some of the printing offices were better lighted, ventilated and had more perfect sanitary arrangements, it would be a great advantage to the health of the workmen. The

* See Chapter VIII., "Laws—Apprenticeship"—also note.

occupation is confining, and newspaper compositors very generally complain of the want of pure air in the offices, and contend that the ceiling ought, at least, to be 12 feet high, and that water closets ought to be removed from the floor of the composing room.

BOOK AND JOB PRINTING.

Men engaged in this branch of the printing business are paid by the week or piece, according to the class of work on which they are employed. The union price is \$16.20 per week; but non-union hands working at job printing can be obtained for any price, from \$7 to \$15 per week.* A number of the employees engaged in job printing offices range from 16 to 20 years of age; including these youths with the men, compositors earn \$12 per week.

A man must be a useful hand to be employed the year round. The majority of job printers work about 261 days per year; this will give an average wage to union hands of \$13.86 per week.

Pressmen.

Pressmen in "job" offices earn from \$12 to \$13 per week. In some offices they act as engineers. There is a surplus of hands, but good men can find employment. A few girls are employed feeding, and in the western part of the State there are some female compositors; they are very few in number. Press girls average \$4 per week.

LITHOGRAPHIC PRINTING.

This trade employs about 130 hands. The large proportion are Germans. There is no union in operation in the State. Work is steady the year round, and men are seldom out of employment. The establishments are very few in number, and all in Baltimore City. The trade is prosperous and employees contented; it is a pleasure to interview the hands working in this industry.

* See Chapter VII., "Blank 632."

Good men make high wages, the wage rate depending entirely on the capacity of the workman; there is very little room for second-rate people. In other words, it is an artistic business, and is governed by no arbitrary schedule of prices. The leading men—

Designers and Engravers,

receive as high as \$50 per week, and even more, securing long engagements under contract. Apprentices in this department are paid as high as \$8 and \$9 per week during the closing years of their time. I have placed engravers' wages at \$25 per week, as an average between the extremes, not finding it possible to arrive at any fixed sum. Among engravers there are general engravers, and those who work on specialties.

Transcribers

are skilled workmen. They transfer the design from the original engraving to the stone from which the printing is done. They are paid from \$18 to \$25 per week. Pressmen receive from \$14 to \$25. Grainers from \$8 to \$12. Feeders, generally boys, about \$5 per week. General hands, male and female, employed in small work about the office, from \$2.50 to \$7 per week. The hands employed in the lithographic printing in Maryland work in the principal establishment about eight hours per day.

BOOKBINDERS.

This is comparatively a small trade, not employing more than 130 hands. There has been a downward tendency, and workmen have complained somewhat of scarcity of work, but I believe that reliable hands have found steady employment, and have made an average time of ten months per annum. There is a union in Baltimore numbering between 60 and 70 members. Fixed rates, which represent the highest prices obtained range—for rulers, from \$12 to \$18 per week; forwarders, \$9 to \$14 per week; gilders, \$15 per week; and finishers, \$15 to \$18 per week.

TYPE FOUNDRY.

Type making is an old Maryland industry; yet it is small, there being only three establishments, all in Baltimore City. They employ about 60 hands. It is not a healthy trade, men and boys engaged in it being affected by the metal. Work is dull during the summer months, otherwise the trade is steady and not subject to serious fluctuations. Casting is done by machinery. The

Type Caster

is a piece worker. He can average \$15.14 per week the year round, and is employed between seven and eight months per year. The

Mould and Matrix Maker

is a permanent hand, one being employed in each foundry. No punches for making type moulds are manufactured in this State; they come principally from New Jersey. A mould maker will average \$14.56 per week per year, and is employed the year round. The

Foundryman

is also a permanent hand, and makes an average wage of \$23.29 per week per year. A

Finisher

works by the piece; makes about half the wage rate as a caster, but is equal in work to two casters, and earns about the same average of wages. Boys employed to break the "jets" from the feet of the type, "setter" boys and "rubber" (male and female) are all employed by the piece, work about ten months in the year, and average from \$2.50 to \$3.50 per week per year.*

ELECTROTYPEING.

There are four electrotyping establishments in the State. The business is not extensive, and gives employment to very few hands. Electrotypers receive from \$12 to \$15 per week.

* In March, 1886, the employees of the type foundries organized a trade union.

ENGRAVERS.

Engravers who are connected with the printing business are copper-plate engravers and wood engravers. In Maryland the copper-plate trade is confined to small shops. There are but few engravers working as journeymen in the printing houses. Metal engravers include general letter engraving with copper-plate work. The work in this State is principally confined to commercial demands.

Including letterers and ornamental jewelry engravers, there are 18 metal engravers, all in Baltimore City. Engraving in the other towns of the State is confined to jobbing work connected with the retail jewelry business, and is done by watchmakers. The wood engravers number about 11 hands. The trade is too small to require particular notice.

PAPER MILLS.

There are 25 paper-mills in the State, situated in Baltimore, Cecil, Washington, Carroll, Talbot and Howard counties. At the time of closing this report a mill for the manufacture of wrapping paper has been put in operation in Baltimore City.

The paper-making business is one of the old industries of the State. The mills, with a few exceptions, run both by steam and water power, and have a capacity to produce an aggregate of 48 tons per day. They manufacture book and news, straw, wrapping, roofing, strawboard and manilla stock, the chief production being book and news paper. The principal mills are situated on the Gunpowder river.

About 300 hands are employed in this industry, half of which number are women and children. The work-people live in the neighborhood of the mills, are principally of English and Irish nationalities, are poor, and no great skill being requisite, there is always a supply of labor. The mills run steadily, and the employees have the advantage of constant work. Like all factory labor the entire family can find employment, and while wages are small, united they

afford a subsistence, while, being in country districts, the cost of living is reduced. The hours of labor are ten, some mills running a night shift. Both male and female labor are employed as pickers. The machine engineer and pulp engineer are the principal hands, and on the skill of the machine tender the mill largely depends for its success. These men, therefore, are constantly employed. The subdivisions and rates of wages will be found in Chapter IV. of this report.

POTTERY TRADE.

There are five potteries in the State of Maryland manufacturing household ware and employing between four and five hundred hands. They manufacture white china, granite, c. c. ware, Rockingham and yellow ware, stone, avalin and ivory ware.

There has been an increased demand for the goods manufactured in the Maryland potteries, the market being principally in the Southern States.

A special line of goods, known as avalin, calvertine and severn ware, manufactured at the Chesapeake pottery, Baltimore City, very beautifully illustrates the excellent quality of material which this State supplies for the manufacturer of fine art pottery, and affords a field for the employment of female talent in decorative art which has been gladly accepted by many of the students of the art schools of the Maryland Institute. Wages, however, in that particular branch have declined during the last two years. These hands are piece-workers. Eight hours constitutes a day's work and five days the week. Eight dollars and fifty cents per week can be earned, but the average wages is \$6.

In the course of these investigations I have been impressed with the belief that the girls employed in this industry occupy the highest grade among the female employees of the State. They work in a room by themselves, which is light and comfortable, and their work is such as to require the exercise of

skill, only acquired by an artistic training. The majority of these female employees reside with their parents or friends, and while, at the commencement of this enterprise, wages were much higher, they are yet in a better condition than the majority of female labor.

The wages paid in the Maryland potteries is regulated by the scale of prices adopted in the State of New Jersey, which is the centre of the Eastern pottery trade. This scale of prices is arranged by mutual agreement between the union and the employers, and is accepted as the standard in the Maryland potteries, the list, which is very complete, being posted in each pottery.

Quite a large number of the hands are of English birth, but very many American boys are growing up in the trade. Ten hours is a day's work, and the potteries continue running all the year round. Potters, however, as an average for the year, make five days per week.

It is a good trade, healthy and reliable, and the employees have not suffered the loss sustained in some other industries. In some of the higher branches of the work, such as modeling and ornamenting, great skill and artistic excellence is displayed, and such men are remunerated according to their ability. They are necessarily few in number, each establishment affording employment to one or two such hands.

The prices earned in the various subdivisions of the pottery trade will be found in the tables of wages, Chapter IV., of this report.

SHIPBUILDING TRADE.

This industry, which at one time was one of the most prosperous in the State, is in a very depressed condition. An employer, writing to the Bureau on the subject, attributes the decline to the want of home patronage, and says that there is sufficient work placed outside the State to keep all hands employed, and that during the last four years the value of such work has amounted to \$1,500,000. Whether

this is the reason, or whether it is that the trade of wooden shipbuilding has, for more general reasons, given place to iron and steel, and for other causes, drifted out of the hands of American workmen, and gone to other countries, I cannot discuss. I simply report that at this time nearly 450 men are idle in the trade in Baltimore City, who, on their side, claim that the employers demand so large a profit that the shipbuilding goes to other cities; while the employers claim that the reason they are unable to compete on contracts is because the men ask wages that are too high.* Meanwhile there are no large vessels being built in Baltimore City, and the shipyards are standing idle; indeed, such has been the condition of the trade during the fall months of 1885. †

Shipbuilding in the counties bordering on the bay, principally at Cambridge city, (which, with three shipyards and railways, employs about 100 men), is comparatively active, and has been steady during the last season. The work is generally confined to vessels employed in the bay trade, such as schooners, pungies, etc.; but vessels of 200 tons

*See Chapter VI., "Strikes—Shipcarpenters."

† The following interesting table, secured and published by the enterprise of the *Baltimore Sun*, very graphically presents the condition of the shipbuilding industry of the State—

Table Showing the Class, Tonnage and Value of Vessels Built in Baltimore in 1885, and the same for 1884, 1883 and 1882, as a Comparison.

	Steamships.	Steamers.	Yachts.	Tugboats.	Barks.	Schooners.	Barges.	Total built during the year.	Tonnage.	Cost.
1885.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	8	2,514	\$287,000
1884.....	...	2	...	5	1	6	2	16	2,342	235,250
1883.....	...	3	...	8	...	8	...	19	3,116	331,200
1882.....	...	1	...	11	...	12	...	24	3,152	334,000
Total for four years.....	1	7	1	25	2	27	4	67	11,124	\$1,190,450

and upward have been built during the last season. Shipcarpenters and caulkers work for \$1.75 to \$2 per day in these yards, with an average working time of about nine months in the year. In Baltimore City there are 300

Shipcarpenters,

very few of them colored. They have not been averaging more than seven months working time per year, and their wages have been stationary at \$3 per day; that is to say, ship carpenters have averaged in wages for the last four years about \$500 per year. They lose wet days. There are about 150

Caulkers,

one-half colored, whose wages have been \$2.75 per day. They make less time than the carpenters.

Riggers

receive \$3 per day and average about half time.

Shipsmiths.

Nearly all own their own shops. Those employed as journeymen earn from \$9 to \$12 per week. In winter time they work over-time at night, and for a short season, on such overwork, a fireman can make from \$24 to \$27 per week. Firemen receive 25 cents per hour over-time, helpers 15 cents per hour. Helpers are generally youths; not much skill is required; they receive \$5 to \$6 per week. From the last of April to the beginning of September trade is dull, and not more than one-half the hands find employment.

The year 1884 was a poor year for general freighting vessels on the Chesapeake bay and its tributaries, and, as a consequence, the

Sailmaking

trade was dull. American vessels engaged in South American business furnished a fair amount of work. There is no scarcity of hands in this business. They work principally by the hour; \$3 per day of ten hours is the highest

wages paid. Men are liable to be out of work during the winter and summer months, the spring and fall being the busy seasons.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.

Railroad employees include nearly all branches of mechanical industry. During the winter of 1884-85 very much distress was experienced by these employees, especially among those engaged at the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad shops, resulting from a reduction in the hours of labor and a corresponding reduction in the pay. The laboring hands employed by that company, who had been receiving \$1.10 per day, were reduced by the shorter hours to 99 and 85 cents per day, so that when they had paid the dues for their insurance there was very little indeed coming to them at the end of the month with which to supply the necessities of life, and as a consequence complaints were loud and general. Reductions were not so frequent or extensive in the shops of the other roads. In May, 1885, work improved in this industry, vacancies filled up, and the men generally went back to full time, while in some departments over-time was worked.

A peculiarity with employees in these shops is the effect produced by the constant occupation in one line. A railroad hand will be laid off for weeks together, and seldom seek any other work. The system of the railroad shop becomes to the workman as a second nature. So accustomed does he grow to the slow, methodical routine of his shop duties that he seems incapacitated for outside work. I have had occasion to remark this peculiarity very often during the dull season of 1884-85, and have noticed men hang about the shops for days together, waiting for a resumption, or continue to work on short time, at greatly reduced wages, without making any effort to find occupation in other directions.

I conclude that the effect of work in the railroad shops on mechanics is to practically incapacitate them from work-

ing even in their own trade in the lines of our general industries. Herein lies one of the causes of the condition of labor to-day, and will prove the source of trouble in the near future. Individual independence among mechanics is practically extinct, and all legislation, to be effective, must be based on a recognition of the fact that great bodies of labor are to-day absolutely dependent on large corporations for their very existence.

There have been no disturbances among railroad employees in this State except along the line of the new extension of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, at Principio creek, and at the Big Gunpowder river, and which were caused by contractors failing to pay the laborers the wages due them. The authorities of the railroad ultimately satisfied these demands. There was some rioting, but no serious results. A similar trouble occurred on the Catonsville Short-line railroad.* The hands employed in the construction of railroads in this State are nearly all Italians. Their wages are presumably \$1.50 per day, but under the contract system they seldom receive over \$1.25, and very often \$1 per day. They are subject to deductions for rent and medical attendance, which further reduces their income. The wooden barracks in which these men are, as a rule, quartered and fed, are very often a disgrace; and the men, who are poorly fed, in many instances sleep on the bare floors of their huts. It is only just to say that this class of labor ranks low; it is certainly lazy and mean, and while their opportunities are few, and while they are undoubtedly subject to imposition, yet, in my judgment, these laborers are no credit and very little use to American civilization. I have been at a loss to conceive what advantage there was in sending to "Castle Garden," New York, for such scourings of humanity as one meets with in these railroad gangs, except the mercenary one of producing a limited profit, at the sacrifice of good work and decent morals.

* See Chapter VI., "Strikes—Italian Labor."

Of the mechanics and labor employed in the railroad shops it is sufficient to say that they are largely of Irish nationality and are, with few exceptions, resident citizens of Baltimore. In the following review I have endeavored to present a just estimate of the daily wages paid in the several departments of railroad construction, based on a working time of ten hours. In this State railroad shops have been working, as a rule, eight and nine hours per day during a great portion of the time of the existence of this office, and wages were reduced proportionately.

Lumber Yard.

Hands employed in loading and unloading lumber for transportation along the line of the road receive \$1.10 for a day of 10 hours.

Saw Mill.

Hands are paid \$1.50 to \$1.80 per day for 10 hours' work.

Carpenter Shop.

Hands engaged on repair work on freight cars, etc., receive \$1.50; hands working on new work, \$2 per day of 10 hours; helpers, \$1.10 per day.

Passenger Car Shops.

Hands engaged on the repair and construction of passenger cars receive from \$1.80 to \$2 per day of 10 hours.

Tin Shop.

Hands employed in roofing cars and buildings, and repairing same, receive from \$1.70 to \$2 per day of ten hours.

Yard.

Labor employed in loading and unloading coal, coke, iron, etc., receive \$1.10 per day of ten hours. These laborers often make overtime, and are paid for the same proportionately.

Paint Shop.

Hands employed painting cars, gondolas, engines, etc., receive from \$1.50 to \$1.75 per day. Ornamental painters,

working on passenger cars, receive \$2 per day of ten hours. Labor employed in washing and scrubbing paint receive \$1.10 per day.

Trimming Shop.

Hands employed in upholstering seats, fitting carpets, making window blinds, etc., receive from \$1.75 to \$2 per day of ten hours.

Pattern Shop.

Hands receive from \$1.75 to \$2.25 per day.

Cabinetmakers.

Hands employed principally on the fittings of passenger cars and office work receive from \$1.50 to \$2 per day for ten hours' work.

Wheel and Iron Foundry.

Wheelmoulders are paid by the piece—25 cents per wheel for all perfect work cast. They were making about \$2 per day during 1885 at this price per piece, but during busy times, such as occurred in 1883-84, they could earn \$3.50 and \$4 per day. Moulders engaged in making small castings, such as are used on the rolling stock of railroads, were earning during 1885 from \$1.60 to \$2 per day. Like the wheelmoulders they made overtime during 1883-84, and their earnings were proportionately higher. Labor employed tending cupolas, handling iron, wheeling coke, etc., receive \$1.10 per day of ten hours, subject to the same overtime as the preceding trades. Coremakers, who make the cores for castings, made in 1885 \$1.50 per day.

Brass Foundry.

Brassmoulders receive from \$1.75 to \$2 per day. Helpers receive \$1.25 per day of ten hours.

Axle Shop.

The wages of these hands vary considerably. They are paid by the piece; are employed turning axles, stripping-off old wheels, and putting up new, etc. During 1885 their

average earnings was \$1.40 per day, but in busy seasons they can earn \$2.50 per day. Hands making axles by means of steam hammers earned \$2 per day in 1885, and furnace hands employed to heat the axles received \$1.25 to \$2 per day. They are piece workers.

Blacksmith Shop.

The wages paid to blacksmiths vary considerably—according to the ability of the workman. They earn from \$1.75 to \$2.25 per day, and in busy seasons work overtime at the same rate of pay proportionately. Helpers receive \$1.15 per day.

Machinery Department.

Machinists who are very constantly employed receive from \$1.60 to \$2 per day of ten hours. Apprentices serve four years, receiving from 70 cents per day for the first year to \$1 per day for the fourth year of their apprenticeship.

The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company has established a technical school connected with their machinery department, which all apprentices are expected to attend, and according to the proficiency they attain in their studies depends in a great measure their future success in the company's employ.

Boiler Shop.

Boilermakers receive from \$2.25 to \$2.50 per day

Bridge Shop.

Hands are employed constructing and repairing bridges along the lines of the road; also making and repairing water stations, fitting up stationary boilers for pile driving, etc. In this department of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad during the winter months of 1884-85 men worked night and day on the construction of the Philadelphia and New York extension. These hands earn from \$1.60 to \$2 per day; helpers, \$1.10 per day of ten hours.

For statistics of actual wages earned see Chapter IV.— "Railroad Employees." The figures here given represent the rates per day, without considering the estimated lost time per year.

In closing this chapter I desire to add that there are some important investigations yet to be made, which neither the powers of the Bureau, or the time at my disposal since the formation of the office, would permit me to undertake. The subject of this report is necessary and introductory to special inquiries, which it will be the duty of this office to make. The subjects of women and child labor, of penitentiary contract labor, of the cost of production in relation to wages, are subjects either of which would properly consume the time of this office. I consider that this report places the subject of wages on such a basis that in future it can be digested in tables, and the rise and fall be noted within a small compass, thereby affording opportunity for the more critical investigation of special subjects. I entertain a hope also that the labors of this office will be lightened, and its opportunities enlarged, by the co-operation of those citizens who, by this report, will understand the intent, scope and direction of this statistical work.

CHAPTER IV.

WAGES.

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WAGES.

There is no element of the industrial fabric of a state so important as the element of wages, and it is also true that there is no subject respecting which there exists so general a misconception in the public mind. The standard by which wages are popularly computed is the highest price paid per day for the labor in any given industry. Whether this is because of a natural tendency to greater rather than to lesser things, or it is that we instinctively desire our fellows to make more, or are ashamed that they make less, I know not, but it is the rule that the mind reverts to the highest standard, and the idea of calculating wages from the lowest rate is seldom entertained.

The generally accepted method of aggregating all the money paid out in a certain industry for the production of a certain quantity of goods, dividing the sum total by the number of all the people employed, and calling the result the average wages of the individual workman in that trade is, in my judgment, most unreliable and incorrect.

Thus, for example, the following table shows 30 hands employed in one establishment, all connected with the manufacture of a certain article, the rate of wages being calculated on 26 days per month—

Number of Hands.	Wages per Day.	Total Wages per Month.	Individual Wages Per Month.
5	\$2 50	\$325 00	\$65 00*
9	1 50	351 00	39 00*
2	0 66.6	34 63	17 31
3	0 50	39 00	13 00
5	0 25	32 50	6 50
1	3 84+	100 00	100 00*
1	3 00	78 00	78 00*
1	1 53+	40 00	40 00*
1	2 88+	75 00	75 00*
1	1 16+	30 31	30 31
1	1 50	39 00	39 00*

Now, the total of the monthly wages of the whole shop is \$1,144.44. Divide that by the number of hands employed, viz.: 30, and we have a result of \$38.14 plus, per man; but it will be seen that only those workmen marked * are in excess of that sum. In other words, 19 hands receive more than \$38.14 plus, per month and 11 hands receive very much less. It follows, then, that \$38.14 plus, is not a representation of the wages paid in that industry, and yet it is on exactly that principle that estimates are generally made.

Consider now a case presented in a very carefully prepared report of a Labor Bureau, of some years' experience, in another state: The average wages per week in a certain trade is there reported to be \$19.24. The average annual earnings in that branch of the trade as \$637.87 per man. The average number of working days is 203. Now, \$637.87 divided by 203 gives \$3.14 plus, per day, or \$18.85 per week, or 35 cents per week less than \$19.24. Again, another hand is reported as making an average wage of \$11.43 per week. The average annual earnings are \$530, and the average time

worked 297 days. Divide the annual earnings by the number of days, and we have \$1.78 plus, per day, and \$10.70 plus, per week, or 73 cents less than \$11.43, the average wages reported.

It is true the difference seems small, but in many instances it becomes important. It is evidently caused by taking the wages returned by a body of labor, and dividing the aggregate sum by the number reporting.

These examples have been selected at random, not in any unjust spirit of criticism, for I fully appreciate the difficulties of the task the Labor Bureaus are engaged in; but because, after close examination, I am satisfied that while, as in the instances quoted, general money averages come near the truth, yet they are not so certain a system as that which is based on the possible number of working days in the year, and which I have adopted in the wages tables of this chapter, for it will be evident that, when the effort is made to average the wages of a body of men on the basis of money earned, the earnings of the expert, robust or energetic workman distort those of his inferior co-laborer, and *vice versa*.

I have experienced some difficulty in ascertaining the actual wages of the trades, from the fact that workmen, willing to impart information, constantly exaggerate their capacity for work and the amount of their earnings, and because of the secrecy which is, in many cases, maintained between workmen.

There exists also a very general custom to pay wages under cover, and one man is not expected to inform another. I have known employees to receive a certain sum as wages and refund a portion privately—an arrangement which encourages a system of cutting among wage workers fatal to their own interests.

The monthly payment system, to some extent, hinders a fair computation in certain trades, inasmuch as it reduces

the purchasing power of wages. Certainly it is in the highest degree detrimental to the workman. It keeps him constantly in debt, and the result is simply to burden the whole body of labor with a tax equal to the interest accruing to the employer by the retention of the aggregate sum of the wages. It makes the workman the slave of the employer first and of the storekeeper afterwards, and in its operation encourages a resort to the money lender, whereby wages are discounted at a ruinous interest.

It is certainly true that the majority of men have no knowledge of the actual wages of the State, or even of their own industry. Wage workers themselves have but a crude idea of the wages they are earning. They seldom go beyond the rate per day or week which they earn when working, and in the course of my investigation I have met many cases where the critical examination of the statements of a wage worker has, in the result, surprised and puzzled my informant.

It is unfortunately true that the great majority of workmen seldom calculate beyond the necessities of the present, hence the generally erroneous idea of the value of wages.

Thus, for example, the question is asked, "What wages do carpenters make in Maryland?" nine-tenths will answer "\$2.50 per day," thus giving the highest rate earned. The mental calculation immediately follows: "\$2.50 per day is \$15 per week," and the conclusion is reached that the standard wages of carpenters in the State of Maryland is \$15 per week. The conclusion is wrong because it is superficial, and it necessarily leads to wrong deductions respecting the actual condition of that body of mechanics.

The average time which carpenters work in a year very materially modifies the sum of their earnings and reduces the wages per week per annum to \$11.35. This is equally true of other trades, and I am convinced that very many men would be better off if they fully realized that fact and

calculated wages, not from the maximum figures of a day's labor, or the subdivision of the sum total of the yearly wages paid in the industry, but from the average number of days the general trade is able to work in the year. Also, I am satisfied that the public would better appreciate the position of labor, when it contends for an increase of wages, either by strikes or otherwise, if the sum of the true wages per annum was more accurately determined, and more intelligently realized. Three hundred and nine days is the full number of working days in a year, deducting 52 Sundays and 4 holidays, and there are very few men who work at any occupation 300 days out of the 365. Physical incapacity to continue the strain of labor, dullness of trade, climatic conditions, and the multitude of private obstacles which interfere, result in a reduction of the hours of labor in every industry. I have endeavored, in the construction of the following tables, to arrange them in a way that would present the *Theoretical* with the *Actual* wages received in the various occupations, and to base the calculation on a fair average of the working days per annum.

In determining the number of such days I have expended much time and personal labor, and while some individuals may make more and some less, no figures have been set down except they are, in my best judgment, a proper expression of the general condition of the trade.

That the method adopted may be properly understood, I proceed to explain the system of calculation by which the sum of each column is reached. Careful reading of this explanation will make the table very simple and plain to the reader. The trades are arranged in groups, under general heads.

The figures in the *first column* of the table represent the *highest* wages earned *per diem* in any given industry.

The *second column* is the sum of the *first column*, multiplied by 6 full working days, and represents the *highest weekly wages*.

The *third column* is the sum of the *second column* multiplied by 52, and represents the *highest yearly wages*.

The *fourth column* shows the average number of working days per annum.

The figures in the *fifth column* represent the *actual wages* earned *per working day* per annum. The sum is obtained by the following calculation: The *average number of working days* is multiplied by the *highest daily wages*, the product is divided by 309 (the number of working days possible in one year), and the result is the proportion per day, or the *actual daily wages*.

Thus, for example, carpenters work an average of 234 days per year; multiply 234 by \$2.50 (their highest daily wage), divide the result by 309 possible working days, and the result is \$1.89 plus, or the actual daily wage per annum.

The sum of the *sixth column* is the *actual daily wages* multiplied by 6, and represents the *actual weekly wages* per annum.

Thus, \$1.89 (carpenters' actual daily wage), multiplied by 6 = \$11.35 plus, or the actual weekly wages per annum of carpenters.

The figures in the *seventh column* is the sum of the *average number of working days* multiplied by the *highest daily wages*, and represent the *actual wages* earned *per year*.

Thus, 234 working days, multiplied by \$2.50, result \$585, or the actual yearly wages of carpenters.

The figures in the *eighth column* is the sum of the *actual yearly wages*, divided by 365 (the total number of days in the year), and represents the *daily income* derived from the *actual wages* earned.

Thus it will be seen that the highest wages paid to carpenters is \$2.50 per day, which, theoretically considered, is \$15 per week, or \$780 per year. But considered on the basis of the average number of working days per annum, *i. e.* 234,

gives an actual wage per day of \$1.89+ per week of \$11.35+ and per year of \$585. Being a difference of \$195 per year, \$3.75 per week, and .62+ per day; certainly a very important fact in considering either the sustaining or distributive power of wages.

In cases where men are paid by the piece the wage per diem is calculated by the average sum they are capable of earning, and in all cases the highest average of time worked and money earned by the most expert hands has been adopted, based on the condition of the State's industries in 1885. It must be understood in considering this table that it is not intended to show what an individual earns in a year, but what he can earn working only at one industry. Some men work at two or three trades to make up the year. As, for example, a brickmaker may work during the winter at raw oyster shucking, in which case he will earn as a press brickmaker \$348.75, and as a shucker \$117, or a total of \$465.75, which will give him as an individual an income of \$1.27 per day per annum. This, however, is the exception. Skilled mechanics very seldom work at any other than their special trade.

EXHIBIT
OF THE
PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES
PRACTICED IN THE
STATE OF MARYLAND,
SHOWING THE
THEORETICAL
AND
ACTUAL WAGES
EARNED BY THE LABOR EMPLOYED.

BUILDING TRADES.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
<i>Brickmakers.</i>								
Temperers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	155	0 75+	4 51+	232 50	0 63
Wheelers.....	1 30	7 80	405 80	155	0 65+	3 91+	201 50	0 55
<i>Moulders.</i>								
Pressed.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	155	1 12+	6 76+	348 75	0 95
Topping	1 75	10 50	546 00	155	0 87+	5 26+	271 25	0 74
Sand.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	155	1 25+	7 52+	387 50	1 06
Bottom.....	1 60	9 60	499 20	155	0 80+	4 81+	248 00	0 67
Paving.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	155	1 00	6 00	310 00	0 84
Off-bearers.....	1 15	6 90	358 80	155	0 57+	3 45+	178 25	0 48
Turnover.....	0 32	1 93	100 00	155	0 16	0 96	49 60	0 13
<i>Kiln Hands.</i>								
Wheelers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	155	0 62+	3 76+	193 75	0 53
Setters.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	155	0 87+	5 26+	271 25	0 74
Burners.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	155	1 00	6 00	310 00	0 84
Helpers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	155	0 62+	3 76+	193 75	0 53
<i>Press Gang.</i>								
Wheelers.....	1 30	7 80	405 80	155	0 65+	3 91	201 50	0 55
Pressers	2 25	13 50	702 00	155	1 12+	6 76+	348 75	0 95
Off-bearers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	155	0 75+	4 51	232 50	0 63
Dressers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	155	1 00	6 00	310 00	0 84
Rubbers.....	1 00	6 00	312 00	155	0 50	3 00	155 00	0 42
<i>Terra Cotta.</i>								
Moulders.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	181	1 75+	10 54+	543 00	1 48
<i>Fire Brick.</i>								
Claydiggers, {								
Mixers, Mach- {	1 25	7 50	390 00	300	1 21+	7 28+	375 00	1 02
ine crushers, }								
Brickmoulders {								
and pressers }	1 30	7 80	405 60	300	1 26+	7 57+	390 00	1 06
Burners.....	1 70	10 20	530 40	300	1 65+	9 90+	510 00	1 39
Boys.....	0 75	4 50	234 00	300	0 72+	4 26+	225 00	0 61
<i>Retorts and Tiles.</i>								
Mixers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	300	1 21+	7 28+	375 00	1 02
Moulders.....	1 60	9 60	499 20	300	1 55+	9 31+	480 00	1 31
Finishers.....	1 30	7 80	405 60	300	1 26+	7 57+	390 00	1 06
Tilemoulders....	1 50	9 00	468 00	300	1 45+	8 73+	450 00	1 23
Kilnmen.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42+	14 56+	750 00	2 05
Helpers	1 50	9 00	468 00	300	1 45+	8 73+	450 00	1 23
Patternmakers..	2 75	16 50	858 00	300	2 67	16 01+	825 00	2 26
Assistants.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	300	1 70	10 19+	525 00	1 43
Drainpipe mak'r	1 30	7 80	405 60	300	1 26+	7 57+	390 00	1 06
Chimney-top makers.....	1 70	10 20	530 40	300	1 65	9 90	510 00	1 39

BUILDING TRADES.—(Concluded.)

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Brickmasons....	\$ 4 00	24 00	1248 00	194	\$ 2 51+	15 06+	776 00	2 12
Carpenters.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	234	1 89+	11 35+	585 00	1 60
Granite cutters.	3 50	21 00	1092 00	208	2 35+	14 13	728 00	1 99
Granite carvers.	4 00	24 00	1248 00	208	2 69+	16 15+	832 00	2 27
Hodcarriers	2 50	15 00	780 00	194	1 56+	9 41+	485 00	1 32
Locksmiths, etc.	2 50	15 00	780 00	287	2 32+	13 93	717 00	1 96
Plumbers	2 75	16 58	858 00	234	2 08+	12 49+	643 50	1 76
Painters	2 50	15 00	780 00	208	1 68+	10 09+	520 00	1 42
do decorative..	4 00	24 00	1248 00	208	2 69+	16 15+	832 00	2 27
Paperhangers...	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66	652 50	1 92
Plasterers	3 00	18 00	936 00	194	1 88+	11 29+	582 00	1 59
Helpers..... Plaster Mills.	2 50	15 00	780 00	194	1 56+	9 41+	485 00	1 32
Quarrymen	1 50	9 00	486 00	234	1 35+	6 81+	351 00	0 96
Laborers	1 10	6 60	343 20	234	0 83+	5 00	257 00	0 70
Millers	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08	468 00	1 28
Coopers	1 50	9 00	468 00	234	1 35+	6 81+	351 00	0 96
Engineers	1 75	10 50	546 00	234	1 32+	7 95+	409 50	1 12
Pavers.								
Cobble stone....	2 25	13 50	702 00	208	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Belgium block..	3 50	21 00	1092 00	208	2 35+	14 13	728 00	2 00
Rammers..... Quarrymen.	1 92	11 52	599 04	208	1 30	7 75+	399 36	1 10
Drillers.....{	1 50	9 00	468 00	234	1 13+	6 81+	351 00	0 96
Teamsters....{	1 25	7 50	390 00	261	1 05+	6 33+	326 25	0 90
Laborers	1 15	6 90	358 80	261	0 97+	5 82+	300 15	0 82
Stone cutters....	3 00	18 00	836 00	234	2 27+	13 62+	702 00	1 92
Stone carvers...	4 00	24 00	1248 00	261	3 37+	20 26+	1044 00	2 86
Stone letterers..	3 00	18 00	836 00	234	2 27+	13 62+	702 00	1 92
Stone rubbers..	2 00	12 00	634 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Stone masons...	3 50	21 00	1092 00	194	2 19+	13 18+	679 00	1 86
Slate roofers....	3 00	18 00	936 00	155	1 50+	9 02+	465 00	1 27
Tin roofers..... Sash Factories.	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Skilled labor....	2 00	12 00	624 00	286	1 85	11 10	572 00	1 56
Unskilled labor.	1 50	9 00	468 00	286	1 38+	8 32+	429 00	1 17

CARRIAGE TRADE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c
Blacksmiths ..								
Coach-body makers.	2 25	13 50	702 00	261	1 90+	11 40+	587 25	1 60
Painter, 1st cl.								
" 2d class	1 50	9 00	468 00	261	1 26+	7 59+	391 50	1 07
Trimmers.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	261	1 90+	11 40+	587 25	1 60
Wheelwrights ..	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78
<i>Saddle and Harness.</i>								
Cutters.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	261	1 90+	11 40+	587 25	1 60
Machine oper- ators.....								
Saddlemakers & " Harness- makers.	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 68+	10 13+	522 00	1 43
Stitchers, boys...	0 66+	4 00	208 00	261	0 56+	3 37+	173 82	0 47
Collarmakers...	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Trunkmakers ..	1 50	9 00	468 00	208	1 00+	6 05	312 00	0 85

CANNING TRADE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Cannmak'rs, hand	\$ 2 02+	\$ 12 15+	\$ 474 24	234 1 52+	\$ 9 17	\$ 472 86	\$ 1 29	
" machine (boys).	0 66+	4 00	208 00	208 0 44+	2 68+	138 52	0 38	
Cappers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	261 1 69	10 14	522 00	1 43	
Processors.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	261 2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78	
" Helpers	1 50	9 00	468 00	261 1 26+	7 59+	391 50	1 07	
Varnishers	1 25	7 50	390 00	261 1 05+	6 33+	326 25	0 90	
Labelers (females).....	0 90	5 40	280 00	287 0 83+	5 01+	258 30	0 83	
Picking and peeling fruits and shucking Cove oysters, (adults and children)...	0 75	4 50	234 00	234 0 56+	3 40	175 50	0 48	
Raw oyster shuckers	1 08+	6 50	337 48	108 0 54+	3 28+	117 00	0 32	

COAL-MINERS.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Miners.....	\$ 40	\$ 40	\$ 436 00	254	\$ 15+	\$ 691+	356 00	0 97
Drivers.....	1 60	9 60	499 20	254	1 31+	7 89+	406 40	1 11
Track-layers....	1 90	11 40	592 80	254	1 58	9 48	488 20	1 33
Blacksmiths....	1 75	10 50	546 00	254	1 44+	8 64	445 00	1 28
Carpenters.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	254	1 44+	8 64	445 00	1 28
Engineers.....	1 90	11 40	592 80	254	1 58	9 48	488 20	1 33
Laborers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	254	1 02+	6 12+	317 50	0 86
Boys.....	0 75	4 50	234 00	254	0 64+	3 88+	200 50	0 54
Coal trimmers..	3 50	21 00	1092 00	186	2 10+	12 63+	651 00	1 78
Laborers.....	2 10	12 60	655 20	186	1 26+	7 58+	390 60	1 07

CLOTHING TRADE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
<i>Shopwork.</i>	\$.	\$.	\$.					
Cutters.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	261	2 53+	15 19+	783 00	2 14
Trimmers.....	2 33+	14 00	728 00	300	2 26+	13 59	699 90	1 90
Tailors.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 69	10 14	522 00	1 43
<i>Custom Work.</i>								
Tailors.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	261	2 53+	15 19+	783 00	2 14
Tailoresses	1 00	6 00	312 00	261	0 84+	5 06+	261 00	0 71
Shop work....	0 75	4 50	234 00	261	0 63+	3 80	195 75	0 53
Overalls and blouses.....	0 50	3 00	156 00	300	0 48+	2 91+	150 00	0 41
<i>Silk Hats.</i>								
Body makers..								
Finishers.....	4 50	27 00	1404 00	208	3 02+	18 17+	936 00	2 56
Curlers.....								
Purtanzing.....	3 74	22 44	1166 88	208	2 51+	15 10+	777 92	2 13
Trimmers—(fe- males).....	1 75	10 50	546 00	208	1 17+	7 06+	364 00	0 99
<i>Straw Hats.</i>								
Sewers.....								
Trimmers.....	1 00	6 00	312 00	208	0 67+	4 03+	208 00	0 57
Double-edge..								
<i>Shirtmakers.</i>								
Cutters.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78
Assistants.....	1 33+	8 00	416 00	261	2 12+	6 75+	347 91	0 95
Operatives—(fe- male).....	0 75	4 50	234 00	261	0 63+	3 79+	195 75	0 53
Folders — (chil- dren).....	0 25	1 50	78 00	261	0 21+	1 26+	65 25	0 17
<i>Dressmakers.</i>								
Cutting and trimming....	1 25	7 50	390 00	234	0 94+	5 67+	292 50	0 80
Sewers.....	0 58+	3 50	182 00	234	0 44+	2 64+	136 42	0 37
Milliners.....	0 83+	5 00	260 00	234	0 63+	3 78+	194 92	0 53

COTTON MANUFACTURE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
	\$	¢	\$	¢	\$	¢	\$	¢
<i>Sheeting and Drills.—</i> <i>Carding Room.</i>								
Overseers.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	261 1 90	11 40	587 25	1 60	
Pickers.....	1 10	6 60	343 00	261 0 93	5 57+	287 10	0 78	
Grinders.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	261 1 26+	7 60	391 50	1 07	
Card boys.....	0 80	4 80	249 60	261 0 67	4 05+	208 80	0 57	
Card heads..... <i>Women.</i>	0 60	3 60	187 20	261 0 50+	3 03	156 60	0 42	
Drawers.....	0 75	4 50	234 00	261 0 63+	3 80	195 75	0 53	
Slubbers.....								
Speeders.....								
Spare hands....	0 60	3 60	187 20	261 0 50	3 03	156 60	0 42	
Sweepers.....	0 30	1 80	93 60	261 0 25+	1 51+	78 30	0 21	
Doffers..... <i>Spinning Room.</i>	0 50	3 00	156 00	261 0 42+	2 53+	130 50	0 35	
Overseers.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	261 1 90	11 40	587 25	1 60	
Spinners, female	0 65	3 90	202 80	261 0 55	3 30	169 65	0 46	
Doffers “	0 30	1 80	93 60	261 0 25+	1 51+	78 30	0 21	
Sweepers.....	0 25	1 50	78 00	261 0 21+	1 26+	65 25	0 17	
Roving carriers, Spoolers-fem.)	0 75	4 50	234 00	261 0 63+	3 80	195 75	0 53	
Twisters.....	0 50	3 00	156 00	261 0 42+	2 53+	130 50	0 35	
Bobbin-winders, (female).....	0 40	2 40	124 80	261 0 33+	2 02+	104 40	0 28	
Dressers (male & female)..... <i>Weaving Room.</i>	1 00	6 00	312 00	261 0 84+	5 06+	261 00	0 71	
Overseers.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	261 1 90	11 40	587 25	1 60	
Loom-fix'rs.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	261 1 05+	6 33+	326 25	0 89	
Beamers.....	0 50	3 00	156 00	261 0 42+	2 53+	130 50	0 35	
Filling carriers, Spares (male and female).....	0 35	2 10	109 20	261 0 29+	1 77	91 35	0 25	
Warpers.....	1 30	7 80	405 60	261 1 10	6 58+	339 30	0 92	
Slasher hands...	1 25	7 50	390 00	261 1 05	6 33+	326 25	0 84	
Weavers, female <i>Cloth Room.</i>	0 80	4 80	249 60	261 0 67+	4 05+	208 80	0 57	
Overseers.....	1 80	10 80	561 60	261 1 52+	9 12+	469 80	1 28	
Spare (male and female).....	0 65	3 90	202 80	261 0 55+	3 30+	169 65	0 46	
Packers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	261 1 05+	6 33+	326 25	0 89	
Repairers.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	261 1 47+	8 86+	456 75	1 25	

COTTON MANUFACTURE.—(*Concluded.*)

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Engineers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 68+	10 13+	522 00	1 43
Laborers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	261	1 05+	6 63+	326 25	0 89
<i>Cotton Duck Mills—Carding Room.</i>								
Overseers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 68+	10 13+	522 00	1 43
Pickers.....	1 27	7 62	396 24	261	1 07+	6 43+	331 47	0 90
Grinders.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	261	1 26+	7 60+	391 50	1 07
Card boys.....	0 65	3 90	202 80	261	0 55+	3 30	169 65	0 46
Card heads.....	0 75	4 50	234 00	261	0 63+	3 80+	195 75	0 53
Drawers, female	0 70	4 20	218 40	261	0 59+	3 54	182 70	0 50
Slubbers. "	0 80	4 80	249 60	261	0 67+	4 05+	208 80	0 57
Speeders "	0 85	5 10	265 20	261	0 71+	4 30+	221 85	0 60
Spare hands....	0 54	3 24	168 48	261	0 45+	2 73+	140 94	0 38
<i>Spinning Room.</i>								
Overseers.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	261	1 90	11 40	587 25	1 60
Spinners, female	0 80	4 80	249 60	261	0 67+	4 05+	208 80	0 57
Doffers(boys and girls).....	0 43	2 58	134 16	261	0 36+	2 17+	112 23	0 30
Sweepers(boys & girls).....	0 40	2 40	124 80	261	0 33+	2 02+	104 40	0 28
Spare (boys)....	0 50	3 00	156 00	261	0 42+	2 53+	130 50	0 35
Spoolers, female	0 75	4 50	234 00	261	0 63+	3 80+	195 75	0 53
Twisters (male & female).....	0 85	5 10	265 20	261	0 71+	4 30+	221 85	0 60
<i>Weaving Room.</i>								
Overseers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 68+	10 13+	522 00	1 43
Beamers.....	0 70	4 20	218 40	261	0 59	3 54+	182 70	0 50
Fillers.....	0 45	2 70	234 00	261	0 38+	2 28+	117 45	0 32
Weavers, female	0 95	5 70	296 40	261	0 80+	4 81+	247 95	0 60
Spare, (male and female).....	0 50	3 00	156 00	261	0 42+	2 53+	130 50	0 35
Packers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	261	1 26	7 60+	391 50	1 07
Repairers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 68+	10 13+	522 00	1 43
Engineers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78

CLOTH—WOOLEN INDUSTRY.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
This table shows the highest wages possible, calculated on 6 days per week and 52 weeks per year.								
Balers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Beamers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	287	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 17
Box boys.....	0 40	2 40	124 80	287	0 37+	2 22+	114 80	0 31
Burlers (female).....	0 90	5 40	130 80	287	0 83+	5 01	258 30	0 70
Carpenters.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Creel boys.....	0 52	3 12	162 24	287	0 48+	2 89+	149 24	0 40
Drawers-in.....	0 80	4 80	249 60	287	0 74+	4 45+	229 60	0 62
Helpers, fem...{	0 37	2 22	115 44	287	0 34+	2 05+	106 19	0 29
Dyers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Engineers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Finishers.....	0 68	4 08	212 16	287	0 63+	3 78+	195 16	0 53
Foremen.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	287	2 32+	13 93+	717 50	1 96
Fullers.....	1 35	8 10	421 20	287	1 25+	7 51+	387 45	1 06
Inspectors.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Laborers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Loom-fixers.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	287	1 62+	9 75	502 25	1 37
Machinists.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Pickers, males {	1 30	7 80	405 60	287	1 20+	7 24+	373 10	1 02
Females....	0 68	4 08	212 16	287	0 63+	3 78+	195 16	0 53
Children....	0 80	4 80	249 60	287	0 74+	4 45+	229 60	0 62
Piecers, child'r'n	0 45	2 70	140 40	287	0 41+	2 50+	129 15	0 35
Scourers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Shearers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	287	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 17
Speckers, fem...{	0 67	4 02	209 04	287	0 62+	3 73+	192 29	0 52
Spinners (mule).{	1 35	8 10	421 20	287	1 25+	7 51+	387 45	1 06
Spool carriers..{	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Spoolers, fem...{	1 00	6 00	312 00	287	0 92+	5 56+	287 00	0 78
Sweepers, child.	0 40	2 40	124 80	287	0 37+	2 22+	114 80	0 31
Teuters.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Teamsters.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	287	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 17
Waste grinders.	1 00	6 00	312 00	287	0 92+	5 56+	287 00	0 78
Weavers, fem...{	1 00	6 00	312 00	287	0 92+	5 56+	287 00	0 78
Wool sorters....	2 20	13 20	686 40	287	2 04+	12 25+	631 40	1 72

FURNITURE TRADE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Moulding machine hands.	\$ 2 00	\$ 12 00	\$ 624 00	300	\$ 1 94+	\$ 11 64+	\$ 600 00	1 76
Sawyers <i>Factory.</i>	1 50	9 00	468 00	300	1 38+	8 31+	450 00	1 23
Cabinetmakers, Piece work	1 75	10 50	546 00	234	1 32+	7 95+	409 50	1 12
Weekly.	2 00	12 00	624 00	300	1 94+	11 64+	600 00	1 76
Varnishers	1 16+	7 00	364 00	234	0 88+	5 29+	272 84	0 74
Upholsterers.	1 75	10 50	546 00	208	1 17+	7 06+	364 00	1 00
Painters.	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Packers <i>Chair Factory.</i>	1 25	7 50	390 00	300	1 21+	7 27+	375 00	1 00
Chair joiners.	1 50	9 00	468 00	208	1 00+	6 04	312 00	0 85
Patterumakers.	1 66+	10 00	520 00	300	1 61+	9 70+	500 00	1 36
Machine hands.	1 16+	7 00	364 00	300	1 13+	6 79+	349 80	0 96
Varnishers and stainers <i>Custom Work.</i>	0 66+	4 00	208 00	300	0 64+	3 87+	200 00	0 54
Caning (girls). <i>Custom Work.</i>	0 58+	3 50	182 00	300	0 56+	3 39+	174 90	0 47
Cabinetmakers.	2 16+	13 00	676 00	234	1 64	9 84	506 84	1 38
Carvers	2 33+	14 00	728 00	234	1 76+	10 59+	545 92	1 50
Upholsterers.	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Women "	0 83+	5 00	260 00	234	0 63+	3 78+	195 00	0 53
Varnishers	1 83+	11 00	572 00	234	1 38+	8 32+	428 92	1 17
Carpet sewers <i>Pianomakers.</i>	1 00	6 00	312 00	261	0 84+	5 06+	261 00	0 71
Mill hands.	2 50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42+	14 56+	750 00	2 05
Turners	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Casemakers	2 33+	14 00	728 00	287	2 16+	13 00	669 57	1 83
Fly finishers.	2 66+	16 00	832 00	287	2 47+	14 85+	765 14	2 10
Carvers	1 66+	10 00	520 00	287	1 54+	9 28+	478 14	1 31
Sounding board makers.	3 00	18 00	936 00	287	2 78+	16 71+	861 00	2 35
Keymakers.	2 66+	16 00	832 00	287	2 47+	14 85+	765 00	2 10
Varnishers.	2 50	15 00	780 00	287	2 32+	13 93+	717 50	1 96
Action finishers.	3 33+	20 00	1040 00	287	3 10	18 57+	956 57	2 62
Regulators <i>Picture Frames.</i>	3 00	18 00	936 00	287	2 78+	16 71+	861 00	2 35
Gilders.	2 16+	13 00	676 00	261	1 83	10 97	565 32	1 54
Joiners.	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 68+	10 13+	522 00	1 43
Finishers.	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 68+	10 13+	522 00	1 43

GLASS MANUFACTURE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day, for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
<i>Druggists' Ware.</i>								
Batch mixers...	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 69	10 14	522 00	1 43
Batch helpers...	1 25	7 50	390 00	261	1 05+	6 33+	326 25	0 89
Shearers.....	3 83+	22 98+	1194 98	261	3 23+	19 40+	1000 00	2 07
Under-shearers..	1 66+	10 00	520 00	261	1 40+	8 42	434 83	1 19
Blowers.....	4 16+	25 00	1300 00	261	3 51+	21 10+	1087 32	2 97
Gatherers.....	0 83+	5 00	260 00	261	0 70+	4 21+	217 41	0 59
Tending boys...	0 55	3 30	171 60	261	0 46+	2 78+	143 55	0 39
Apprentices	1 55	9 30	483 60	261	1 31	7 86	404 55	1 10
Gaffers.....	4 16+	25 00	1300 00	261	3 51	21 00	1087 32	2 97
Laying up hands	1 33+	8 00	416 00	261	1 12+	6 75	347 91	0 95
Packers.....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	261	1 40+	8 44+	434 82	1 18
Assist't packers.	1 33+	8 00	416 00	261	1 12+	6 75	347 91	0 95
Mouldmakers...	3 33+	20 00	1040 00	300	3 23+	19 41+	1000 00	2 74
Blacksmiths.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	300	1 94+	11 64+	600 00	1 64
<i>Window Glass.</i>								
Double blowers.	6 59	39 54	2056 08	217	4 62+	27 76+	1430 03	3 91
Single blowers..	4 56+	27 37	1423 24	217	3 20+	19 21+	989 95	2 71
Gatherers.....	2 97	17 82	926 64	217	2 08+	12 51+	644 50	1 76
Flatteners.....	5 15+	30 91+	1607 32	217	3 61+	21 70+	1117 98	3 06
Cutters.....	5 03+	30 19+	1570 00	217	3 53+	21 19+	1092 00	3 00

IRON INDUSTRY.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day, for 365 days.		
	This table shows the highest wages possible, calculated on 6 days per week and 52 weeks per year.				This table shows the actual wages earned, calculated on the number of days employed per year.					
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.			
Blacksmiths.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	287	2 04	12 54	645 75	1 77		
Helpers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98		
Boilermakers.										
Flange turners.	2 75	16 50	858 00	261	2 32+	13 93+	717 75	1 96		
Riveters.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	261	1 90	11 40	587 25	1 60		
Caulkers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	261	1 26+	7 59+	391 50	1 07		
Helpers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	261	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 18		
Stove moulders.	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78		
Filers and finish- ers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57		
Moulders.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57		
Helpers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98		
Coremakers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	287	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 18		
Machinists.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78		
Lathe hands.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 69	10 13+	522 00	1 43		
Planer hands.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	261	1 05+	6 33+	326 25	0 89		
Helpers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 32+	13 92+	717 50	1 96		
Patternmakers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	287						
Iron Furnaces.										
Keepers.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	234	1 32+	7 95+	409 50	1 12		
Guttermen.....	1 57+	9 45	491 40	234	1 19+	7 14+	368 08	1 00		
Fillers.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	234	1 32+	7 95	409 50	1 12		
Coal burners.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28		
Coal rakers.....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	234	1 26+	7 56+	389 84	1 07		
Ore haulers.....										
Ore roasters.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	234	0 94+	5 67+	292 50	0 80		
Ore drawers.....										
Ore crackers.....										
Slag haulers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	261	1 05+	6 33+	326 25	0 89		
" helpers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	261						
Wood fillers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	234	1 13+	7 81+	351 50	0 96		
Wood haulers.....	1 37+	8 25	429 00	234	1 04+	6 24+	321 75	0 88		
Wood loaders.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	234	1 13+	7 81+	351 50	0 90		
Ore loaders.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	234	0 94+	5 67+	292 00	0 80		
Drivers.....	1 16	7 00	364 00	287	1 08+	6 49+	334 64	0 91		
Rolling-Mills.										
Pudlers.....	2 60	15 60	811 20	155	1 30+	7 82+	403 00	1 10		
Helpers.....	1 15	6 90	358 80	155	0 57+	3 45+	178 25	0 49		
Heaters.....	4 00	24 00	1248 00	261	3 37+	20 26+	1044 00	2 86		
Rollers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78		
Laborers.....	1 05	6 30	327 60	261	0 88+	5 31+	274 05	0 75		
Horseshoers.....	2 66+	16 00	832 00	300	2 58+	15 48+	800 00	2 19		
File cutters.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	155	0 87+	5 26+	271 25	0 74		
Cutlers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42	14 56+	750 00	2 05		

LEATHER INDUSTRY.

The plus (+) sign is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
This table shows the highest wages possible, calculated on 6 days per week and 52 weeks per year.								
Tanning Sole Leather	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c		\$ c	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c
Beam hands...	1 66+	10 00	520 00	300	1 61+	9 70+	500 00	1 37
Scourers & oilers	1 50	9 00	468 00	300	1 45+	8 73+	450 00	1 23
Laborers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	300	1 21+	7 27+	375 00	1 02
Curriers—Calf and Upper.								
Tablemen.....	1 33+	8 00	416 00	287	1 23+	7 42+	382 57	1 04
Knifemen.....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	287	1 54+	9 28+	478 14	1 30
Pullers.....	1 87+	11 25	585 00	287	1 74+	10 44+	538 12	1 47
Beam hands...	1 50	9 00	468 00	287	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 17
Tanners.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	287	1 62+	9 74+	502 25	1 37
Finishers.....	1 75	9 60	499 20	287	1 48+	8 91+	459 20	1 25
Colorers.....	1 60	10 00	520 00	287	1 54+	9 28+	478 14	1 30
Trimmers.....	1 66+	7 68	399 36	287	1 18+	7 12+	367 36	1 00
Morocco Workers.								
Tanners.....	1 33+	8 00	416 00	287	1 33+	7 42+	382 57	1 04
Shavers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	287	2 32+	13 93+	717 50	1 96
Finishers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Sewers (females)	1 00	6 00	312 00	287	0 92+	5 56+	287 00	0 78
Boots and Shoes— Women's Wear.								
Cutters.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Cutters (boys)...	0 75	4 50	234 00	234	0 56+	3 40+	175 50	0 48
Fitting Room.								
Boys.....	0 41+	2 50	130 00	234	0 31+	1 89+	97 34	0 26
Lasters.....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	234	1 26+	7 56+	389 84	1 06
Tackers & sew- ers.....	2 33+	14 00	728 00	234	1 76+	10 60	545 92	1 49
Beaters out.....	1 83+	11 00	572 00	234	1 38+	8 32+	428 92	1 17
Heelers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	234	1 89+	11 35+	585 00	1 60
Edge trimmers...	1 50	9 00	468 00	234	1 13+	6 81+	351 00	0 96
Shaving heels & trimm'g edges.	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Breast'g & rough- ing heels.	2 50	15 00	780 00	234	1 89+	11 35+	585 00	1 60
Heel burnish- ers.....	1 83+	11 00	572 00	234	1 38+	8 32+	428 92	1 17
Edge setters...	1 75	10 50	546 00	234	1 32+	7 95+	409 50	1 12

LEATHER INDUSTRY.—(*Continued.*)

The plus (+) sign is used where there is a fraction in excess.

LEATHER INDUSTRY.—(Concluded.)

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
<i>Men's Wear— Machine Work.</i>	\$ 6 00	\$ 4 20	\$ 494 00	234	\$ 6 00	\$ 4 20	\$ 494 00	1 01
Lasters	1 58+	9 50	494 00	234	1 20	7 19+	370 49	1 01
Tackers and stitchers....								
Shaving heels and trimm'g forepart....	2 68	16 08	836 16	234	2 02+	12 17+	627 12	1 71
Heel trimming machine op- eratives....								
Beaters out and nailers }	1 66+	10 00	520 00	234	1 26+	7 56+	389 84	1 06
Burnishers.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	234	1 32+	7 95+	428 50	1 12

MISCELLANEOUS TRADES.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Broommakers ..	\$ 1 41+	\$ 50	\$ 412 00	182	\$ 0 83+	5 00	257 71	\$ 0 70
Butchers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	300	1 45+	8 73+	450 00	1 23
Bakers (bread)..	1 25	7 50	390 00	300	1 21+	7 27+	375 00	1 02
Bakers— <i>Cake and Cracker (factory.)</i>								
Foremen	3 33+	20 00	1040 00	300	3 23+	19 41+	1000 00	2 73
Cake, machine haids.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Cracker oven...	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Cake oven....								
Cake dough makers.....								
Cracker dough makers.....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	287	1 54+	9 28+	478 14	1 31
Cracker roller hands.....								
Cake roller hands.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	287	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 18
Cake form ma- kers	0 83+	5 00	260 00	287	0 77+	4 63+	239 07	0 65
Feeders— <i>cake machine.</i>								
Machinists....	2 00	12 00	624 00	300	1 94+	11 64+	600 00	1 64
Engineers								
Tending ovens (boys).....	0 50	3 00	156 00	287	0 46+	2 78+	143 50	0 39
Rakers (cracker ovens).....	0 75	4 50	234 00	287	0 69+	4 17+	215 25	0 59
Rakers (cake ovens).....	0 66+	4 00	208 00	287	0 62	3 71+	191 31	0 52
<i>Packing Department.</i>								
Foremen.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42+	14 56+	750 00	2 05
Second hand packers and coopers.....	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Packers (boys & girls).....	0 66+	4 00	208 00	287	0 62	3 71+	191 31	0 52

MISCELLANEOUS TRADES.—(Continued.)

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
	\$ c	\$ c	\$ c		\$ c	\$ c	\$ c	
Barbers.....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	300	1 61+	9 70+	500 00	1 36
Brewers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42+	14 56+	750 00	2 05
<i>Brushmakers.</i>								
Kalsomine.....	1 33+	8 00	416 00	234	1 00+	6 05	311 91	0 85
Large paint.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	234	1 89+	11 35	585 00	1 60
“ second class.	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08	468 00	1 28
Brush tiers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	234	1 51+	9 08	468 00	1 28
Brush drawers, (children).....	0 83+	5 00	260 00	234	0 63	3 78	194 92	0 53
Setters	1 33+	8 00	416 00	234	1 00+	6 05	311 92	0 85
Combers.....								
Borers.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	234	1 89+	11 35	585 00	1 60
Finishers.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	234	1 35+	6 81+	351 00	0 96
<i>Street Railway Em- ployees.</i>								
Conductors...{	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Drivers.....{	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Trippers.....	1 20	7 20	374 40	287	1 11+	6 67+	344 40	0 94
Hostlers.....{	1 50	9 00	468 00	287	1 39+	8 35+	430 50	1 18
Trackmen.....{								
Car-cleaners....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	287	1 54+	9 28+	478 14	1 31
Carpenters....	2 33+	14 00	728 00	287	2 16+	13 00	669 57	1 83
Horseshoers....	2 66+	16 00	832 00	300	2 88+	15 48+	800 00	2 19
Boys.....	0 83+	5 00	260 00	287	0 77+	4 63+	239 07	0 65
<i>Stage Lines.</i>								
Drivers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Hostlers.....{	1 25	7 50	390 00	287	1 16+	6 96+	358 75	0 98
Watering-men{								
Boys.....	0 83+	5 00	260 00	287	0 77+	4 63+	239 07	0 65
<i>Cigar Trade.</i>								
Hand workers{	2 25	13 50	702 00	261	1 90+	11 40	587 25	1 71
Mould “	2 00	12 00	624 00	261	1 69	10 13	522 00	1 43
Stripper boys{	0 66+	4 00	208 00	261	0 56+	3 31+	173 82	0 47
Bunchmakers{	1 00	6 00	312 00	261	0 84+	5 06+	261 00	0 71
Wrappers{	1 50	9 00	468 00	261	1 26+	7 59+	391 50	1 07
<i>Coopers.</i>								
Light.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 86	11 14	574 00	1 57
“Schlack”.....	1 50	9 00	468 00	234	1 35+	6 81+	351 00	0 96
Trimmers.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	156	1 51+	9 08+	468 00	1 28
Drivers.....	2 16+	13 00	676 00	300	2 10+	12 61+	650 00	1 78

MISCELLANEOUS TRADES.—(*Concluded.*)

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
General lab... Musicians ... Oil Factories.	1 25 2 50 2 00	7 50 15 00 12 00	390 00 780 00 624 00	234 261 287	0 94+ 2 11+ 1 85+	5 67+ 12 66+ 11 14+	292 50 652 50 574 00	0 80 1 92 1 57
Stillmen Laborers.... Stevedores ... Porters	1 50 1 50 2 00 1 75	9 00 468 00 12 00 10 50	468 00 624 00 546 00 390 00	287 287 208 300	1 40+ 1 34+ 1 70 0 84+	8 35+ 8 04+ 10 19 5 04+	430 50 416 00 525 00 260 00	1 17 1 13 1 43 0 71
Com. laborers Millers..... Millwrights... Teamsters.... Seinemakers Paper Boxes.	1 25 2 00 3 00 1 25 (females) ... Women.	12 00 18 00 18 00 7 50 1 16+ 0 75	624 00 936 00 936 00 390 00 364 00 4 50	208 300 261 300 234 261	1 94+ 2 53+ 1 53+ 1 21+ 0 88+ 0 63+	11 64 15 19 15 19 7 27+ 5 29+ 3 80	600 00 783 00 783 00 375 00 272 84 195 75	1 64 2 14 1 02 0 53 0 23
Children ... Jewellers... Silversmiths .. Coppersmiths.	1 33+ 3 00 2 50 2 50	10 40 18 00 15 00 15 00	104 00 936 00 780 00 780 00	261 287 261 234	0 28+ 2 78+ 2 11+ 1 89+	1 68+ 16 65+ 12 66+ 11 35+	861 00 861 00 652 50 585 00	2 35 1 78 1 78 1 60

PRINTING TRADE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
This table shows the highest wages possible, calculated on 6 days per week and 52 weeks per year.								
Compositors...	2 50	17 50	912 50	313	2 14+	15 00	782 50	2 14
Proof-read'r's }	3 50	24 50	1274 00	313	3 00+	21 00	1095 50	3 00
Pressmen... }	2 50	17 50	912 50	313	2 14+	15 00	782 50	2 14
Stereotypers... }	Job Printing.	17 50	912 50	313	2 14+	15 00	782 50	2 14
Compositors ..	2 70	16 20	842 40	261	2 31+	13 86+	724 70	1 73
Pressmen.....	2 25	13 50	702 00	300	2 18	13 10+	675 00	1 85
Lithographers.								
Transferrs ..	3 50	21 00	1092 00	300	3 39+	20 38+	1050 00	2 87
Engravers	4 16+	25 00	1300 00	300	4 04+	24 26+	1249 00	3 42
Pressmen.....	3 50	21 00	1092 00	300	3 39+	20 38+	1050 00	2 87
Grainers.....	1 66+	10 00	520 00	300	1 61+	9 70+	499 80	1 38
Book Binders.								
Rulers.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	261	2 53+	15 19+	783 00	2 14
Forwarders...	2 33+	14 00	728 00	261	1 97	11 82	608 91	1 66
Gilders.....	2 50	15 00	780 00	261	2 11+	12 66+	652 50	1 78
Finishers.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	261	2 53+	15 19+	783 00	2 14
Type Foundry.								
Electrotypes...	2 50	15 00	780 00	270	2 18+	13 10+	675 00	1 84
Finishers.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	261	2 53+	15 19+	783 00	2 14
Type casters...	4 00	24 00	1248 00	195	2 52+	15 14+	780 00	2 13
Setter boys... o	66+	4 00	208 00	261	0 56+	3 37+	173 82	0 47
Breaker boys. o	50	3 00	156 00	261	0 42+	2 53+	130 50	0 35
Finishers.....	3 00	18 00	936 00	261	2 53+	15 19	783 00	2 14
Rubber men.. i	66+	10 00	520 00	261	1 40+	8 44+	434 82	1 20
Rubber girls.. o	66+	4 00	208 00	261	0 56+	3 37+	173 82	0 47
Mouldmakers. 2	50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42+	14 56+	750 00	2 05
Foundrymen . 4	00	24 00	1248 00	300	3 88+	23 29+	1200 00	3 28
Papermakers.								
Engineers....	2 00	12 00	624 00	300	1 94+	11 64+	600 00	1 64
Firemen....								
Cutters....								
Bleachers... }	1 25	7 50	390 00	300	1 21+	7 27+	375 00	1 02
Finishers...								
Carpenters..								
Backtenders }								
Pulp mixers }	1 10	6 60	343 00	300	1 06+	6 40+	330 00	0 90
Spare hands }								
Machine tend.. 2	50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42+	14 56+	750 00	2 05
Pulp engineers 1	50	9 00	468 00	300	1 45+	8 73+	450 00	1 23
Pickers (fem.). o	50	3 00	156 00	300	0 48+	2 91+	150 00	0 41
Teamsters.... i	33+	8 00	416 00	300	1 29+	7 76+	400 00	1 09

* Calculated on the basis of 7 days per week.

POTTERY TRADE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Throwers.	\$ 3 00	\$ 18 00	\$ 936 00	260	\$ 2 52+	\$ 15 14+	\$ 780 00	2 13
Jigermen	3 00	18 00	936 00	260	2 52+	15 14+	780 00	2 13
Turners	3 00	18 00	936 00	260	2 52+	15 14+	780 00	2 13
Pressers, hollow-ware....	2 70	16 20	842 40	234	2 04+	12 26+	631 80	1 73
Dippers.	3 50	21 00	1092 00	234	2 65	15 90	819 00	2 24
Flat pressers.	2 67	16 02	833 04	234	2 02+	12 13+	624 78	1 71
Kilnmen.	2 25	13 50	702 00	234	1 70+	10 21+	526 50	1 44
Clay pressers.	2 00	12 00	624 00	260	1 68+	10 09+	520 00	1 42
Decorat'rs, fem	1 20	7 20	374 40	260	1 00+	6 05+	312 00	0 85
Gilders { males	2 50	15 00	780 00	300	2 42+	14 56+	750 00	2 05
Mould makers.	3 00	18 00	936 00	300	2 91+	17 47+	900 00	2 46

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.*

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day, for 365 days.
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.	
Lumber yard (laborers)....	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	247	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6
	1 10	6 60	343 20	247	0 88	5 27+	271 70	0 74
Saw mill hands	1 80	10 80	561 60	247	1 43+	8 62+	444 60	1 22
Carpenters....	2 00	12 00	624 00	247	1 60	9 58+	494 00	1 35
" repair....	1 50	9 00	468 00	247	1 20	7 19+	370 50	1 01
Laborers.....	1 10	6 60	343 20	247	0 88	5 27+	271 70	0 74
Passenger car shop hands..	2 00	12 00	624 00	247	1 60	9 58+	494 00	1 35
Tinners.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	247	1 60	9 58+	494 00	1 35
Laborers(yard)	1 10	6 60	343 20	247	0 88	5 27+	271 70	0 74
Painters.....	1 75	10 50	546 00	247	1 40	8 38+	432 25	1 18
" laborers.	1 10	6 60	343 20	247	0 88	5 27+	271 70	0 74
Upholsterers..	2 00	12 00	624 00	247	1 60	9 58+	494 00	1 35
Pattern mk'rs.	2 25	13 50	702 00	247	1 80	10 78+	555 75	1 52
Cabinetma- kers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	247	1 60	9 58+	494 00	1 35
Moulders— iron.....	1 10	6 60	343 20	247	0 88	5 27+	271 70	0 74
Coremakers...	1 50	9 00	468 00	247	1 20	7 19+	370 50	1 01
Moulders— brass.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	247	1 60	9 58+	494 00	1 35
" helpers..	1 25	7 50	390 00	247	1 00	6 00	308 75	0 84
Axlemakers...	1 75	10 50	546 00	247	1 40	8 38+	432 25	1 18
" heaters..	1 50	9 00	468 00	247	1 20	7 19+	370 50	1 01
Blacksmiths...	2 25	13 50	702 00	247	1 80	10 78+	555 75	1 52
" helpers..	1 15	6 90	358 80	247	0 92	5 51+	284 05	0 77
Machinists....	2 00	12 00	624 00	247	1 60	9 58+	494 00	1 35
Boilermakers..	2 50	15 00	780 00	247	2 00	11 98+	617 50	1 66
" helpers..	1 25	7 50	390 00	247	1 00	6 00	308 75	0 84
Bridge build- ers.....	2 00	12 00	624 00	287	1 85+	11 14+	574 00	1 57
Helpers.....	1 10	6 60	343 20	287	1 02+	6 12+	315 70	0 86

* This table is calculated on a working day of ten hours. As railroad shops in this State have been working irregularly eight, nine and ten hours per day, and at the Mount Clare shops hands have been laid off during 1885, the number of working days of ten hours has been proportionately reduced. From the most careful inquiry made among the Employees of the various departments of all the railroad shops, the actual working time has been computed to be equal to 247 days, of ten hours each.

SHIPBUILDING TRADE.

The plus sign (+) is used where there is a fraction in excess.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	THEORETICAL WAGES.			Average number of days employed per year.	ACTUAL WAGES.			Actual income per day for 365 days.		
	Day.	Week.	Year.		Day.	Week.	Year.			
Sailmakers 3 00	\$ 18 00	\$ 936 00	\$ 155 1 50+	155	\$ 9 02+	\$ 465 00	I 27			
Blockmakers 2 50	15 00	780 00	208 I 68+	208	10 10+	520 00	I 42			
Shipcarpent'rs 3 00	18 00	936 00	184 I 78+	184	10 71+	552 00	I 51			
Caulkers. 2 75	16 50	858 00	155 I 38	155	8 27+	426 25	I 16			
Riggers. 3 00	18 00	936 00	155 I 50+	155	9 02+	465 00	I 27			
Shipsmiths 2 00	12 00	624 00	234 I 51+	234	9 08+	468 00	I 28			
Boatbuilders. 2 00	12 00	624 00	208 I 34+	208	8 07+	416 00	I 13			

The figures given in the following tables of comparative wages are carefully selected, those which are given as representing wages in foreign countries being taken from the consular reports.

The figures for the states come from the late reports of the several state labor bureaus, and are taken from their computed tables of average wages. For reasons given in the opening of this chapter I consider all these figures rather high. I believe if they were computed from the number of days' work per annum, rather than from the money earned by a number of individuals, that they would be nearer the actual fact, and I am the more readily persuaded of this, because in looking at the returns published by most of the states, I find we very closely correspond in our daily and weekly prices, the divergence in the following table being caused by the method of calculating averages.

To illustrate: A bricklayer in Baltimore receives from \$3.50 to \$5 per day, and in Chicago from \$2 to \$4.50 per day. For the sake of the argument, consider a bricklayer in each city working at the rate of \$4 per day. The man in Chicago will only earn wages 160 days per year. Therefore, considered on the basis of the day's work, his wages will be as follows: 160 days, multiplied by \$4, equals \$640 per year; divide \$640 by 309 (possible working days), and it gives us \$2.07+ per day and \$12.42 per week. In Baltimore the season is 194 working days, or 34 days longer than Chicago; multiply 194 by \$4, result is \$766 per year; divide by 309, result is \$2.51+ per day, \$15.06+ per week, or \$2.64 more than the Chicago workman. Yet the Illinois report gives "average daily wages" of bricklayers as \$2.68 per day, or \$16.08 per week, or \$1.02 *more* than Maryland.

There are some trades in which other states have the legitimate advantage, but I am satisfied that the climatic conditions between Illinois and Maryland in the case of

bricklayers is largely in favor of this State. The general rate of wages is lower in the Maryland column of the following table also, because in most trades it represents a season of unusual business depression, during which work has been scarce and hands have lost much time.

To illustrate how much the trades have suffered in the average wages by this decrease in working time, I have placed by the side of the average column a list showing what wages it is possible for each trade to earn in one week, and that column will be found to correspond more closely with what the other states present as their *average* wages.

I conclude that Maryland is actually below the other states reported in the rate of wages, but not to the extent indicated by their averages, for they are certainly high, and should be so regarded when considering this table. I see no reason to consider this condition as permanent, but rather as the result of temporary causes, and that a future tabulation is likely to show an advance. Whether we have retrograded in our standard of wages cannot of course be positively determined, this being the first inquiry into the subject.

With these prefatory remarks, I submit the following tables—

TABLE OF COMPARATIVE WAGES.

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	Maryland per week.	Maryland average per week	Massa- chusetts.	Cal- ifornia.	New Jersey.	Illinois.	Eng- land.	Ger- many.	France.	Italy.	Austria.
<i>Building Trades.</i>											
Bricklayers.....	24 00	15 06	19 95	27 00	18 75	16 08	8 22	4 21	5 74	4 20	3 55
Carpenters.....	15 00	11 35	14 81	16 50	13 37	13 62	8 76	4 11	6 20	4 00	5 10
Hod carriers.....	15 00	9 41	11 92	15 00	9 72	4 72	2 92	3 13	1 70	2 50
Gas fitters.....	16 50	12 49	13 97	19 50	18 00	8 28	4 08	6 07	3 40	6 09
Painters.....	15 00	10 09	13 92	18 00	15 58	12 60	7 84	4 82	5 40	4 20	4 55
, decorative.....	24 00	16 15	16 94	30 00	10 44	6 34	5 04
Plasterers.....	18 00	11 29	21 00	27 00	18 00	8 34	4 43	4 20	6 56	4 32
Roofers.....	18 00	9 02	16 88	21 00	4 67	5 33	3 60	3 73
Stonemasons.....	21 00	13 18	21 00	9 85	4 67	5 32	5 00	3 00
Brick moulders.....	13 50	6 76	10 28	8 12	14 00	10 20	5 56	3 98	5 32	5 00	3 00
“ burners.....	12 00	6 00	22 14	18 00	7 30
Sonecutters.....	18 00	13 62	13 82	18 00	17 00	18 00	10 16	4 85	5 40	4 80
Quarrymen.....	9 00	6 81	11 87	5 72
Paperhangs.....	15 00	12 66	18 00
<i>Carriage Trade.</i>											
Blacksmiths.....	13 50	11 40	16 82	18 00	12 60	6 14	4 00	5 81	3 60	3 18
Bodymakers.....	13 50	11 40	16 87	16 50	12 35	8 69
Trimmers.....	13 50	11 40	13 72	8 62
Painters.....	13 50	11 40	12 67	8 46
Wheelwrights.....	15 00	12 66	13 64	15 75	8 62	4 18	6 74
Saddles and harness.....	12 00	10 13	13 50	9 96	3 69	5 70	3 90	3 80
<i>Clothing Trade.</i>											
Tailors.....	18 00	15 19	17 33	21 00	12 66	10 62	7 30	4 30	5 10	4 30	4 03

TABLE OF COMPARATIVE WAGES—Continued.

WAGES.

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NAME OF OCCUPATION.	Maryland per week.	Maryland average per week.	Massachusetts.	California.	New Jersey.	Illinois.	England.	Germany.	France.	Italy.	Austria.
<i>Furniture Trade.</i>	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6	\$ 6
Upholsterers.....	12 00	9 68	13 63	14 25	11 10	8 15	4 52	4 25	6 14	3 40	4 40
Cabinetmakers.....	13 00	9 84	13 63	15 75	11 10	8 15	4 52	4 25	6 14	3 40	4 40
<i>Iron Industry.</i>											
Blacksmiths.....	13 50	12 54	13 62	15 00	15 26	8 45
Boilermakers.....	16 50	13 93	13 62	15 00	15 26	8 45
Machinists.....	15 00	12 66	12 97	18 00	12 42	14 70	8 12	4 60	7 43
Moulder.....	12 00	11 14	15 40	18 00	14 75	8 76
Patternmakers.....	15 00	13 92	14 60	18 75	15 00	8 60
Horseshoers.....	16 00	15 48	15 00	18 00	18 00	3 61	5 89	5 20	3 00	3 00
<i>Leather Trade.</i>											
Tanners.....	10 00	9 70	14 71	15 00	11 65	10 20	6 76	4 08	5 18	4 15	4 15
Boot and shoe cutters.....	12 00	9 08	13 35	13 49	11 30	3 65	3 60	4 32	4 32	4 32
Boot and shoe lasters.....	10 00	7 56	7 00
Boot and shoe operators.....	6 00	4 54	7 00
<i>Miscellaneous Trades.</i>											
Bakers.....	7 50	7 27	11 25	11 25	12 96	3 90	5 45	4 00	5 87	5 87	5 87
Brewers.....	15 00	14 56	26 50	26 50	13 50	3 32	4 43	8 00
Butchers.....	9 00	8 73	7 50	7 50	12 00	3 63	5 42	3 60	3 50	3 50	3 50
Cigarmakers.....	13 50	11 40	14 25	14 25	5 84	3 97	5 58	3 00	3 10	3 10	3 10
Coopers.....	12 00	11 14	13 25	15 75	9 00	2 96	5 57	2 00	3 64	3 64	3 64
Drivers.....	13 00	12 61	12 61	12 61	12 61	5 21	1 50	2 20	2 20	2 20	2 20
Jewelers.....	18 00	16 65	16 65	16 65	16 65	6 24	3 80	3 80	3 80	3 80	3 80

TABLE OF COMPARATIVE WAGES—*Concluded.*

NAME OF OCCUPATION.	Maryland per week.	Maryland average per week.	Massachu- setts sets.	Califor- nia.	New Jersey.	Illinois.	Eng- land.	Ger- many.	France.	Italy.	Austria.	
	\$	¢	\$	¢	\$	¢	\$	¢	\$	¢	\$	¢
Millers.....	12.00	64	11.64	62	15.62	11.68	62	6.74	95	5.10
Millwrights.....	18.00	19	15.19	12	12.15	15	12.15	15	6.52	5.10
Cannmakers.....	12.15	9	9.91	12.00	12	5.10
Miners.....	8.40	5.10
<i>Printing Trade.</i>												
Compositors.....	17.50	00	15.00	00	14.00	75	18.75	00	16.20	91	5.09
Bookbinders.....	18.00	00	15.19	00	12.64	50	18.50	00	7.46	39	7.24	39
Lithographers.....	21.00	00	20.38	00	10.59	00	10.59	00	8.30	00	5.79	00
Proofreaders.....	24.50	00	21.00	00	19.00	00	19.00	00	8.52	00	10.00	00
Pressmen.....	13.50	00	13.10	00	15.40	00	15.40	00	9.56	47	7.32	00
<i>Shipbuilding.</i>												
Shipcarpenters.....	18.00	00	10.71	00	15.00	00	15.00	00
Shipcaulkers.....	16.50	00	8.27	00	13.50	00	13.50	00
Sailmakers.....	18.00	00	9.02	00	24.00	00	24.00	00
Shipsmiths.....	12.00	00	9.68	00	3.95	04	3.90	04
<i>Cotton Industry.</i>												
Card boys.....	4.80	00	4.05	00	7.11	00	5.04	00	7.21	00	7.21	00
Card grinders.....	9.00	00	7.60	00	8.62	00	5.71	00	5.32	00	5.32	00
Doffers.....	3.00	00	2.53	00	4.49	00	1.22	00	1.22	00	1.22	00
Spinners.....	3.90	00	3.30	00	9.61	00	7.49	00	7.84	00	7.84	00
Twisters.....	3.00	00	2.53	00	5.10	00	2.80	00	2.80	00	2.80	00
Slashers.....	7.50	00	6.33	00	9.90	00	9.17	00	9.17	00	9.17	00
Warpers.....	7.80	00	6.58	00	9.00	00	8.81	00	8.81	00	8.81	00
Weavers.....	4.80	00	4.05	00	6.75	00	5.60	00	5.60	00	5.60	00

CHAPTER V.

FOOD PRICES.

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The very marked difference in the wages earned by European and American workmen suggests an inquiry respecting the relative cost of living.

Professor Edward Atkinson well says:/* "It needs no argument to prove that the great advantage of this country over all others lies in the huge abundance of the most nutritious food, and since the cost of labor in any given product may be measured by the effectiveness of the labor, rather than by a mere comparison of the rate of wages in money, it becomes important to know the 'price of food in countries which may compete with us, or which may be called upon to supply in part.'"

And here we meet with an obstacle—the want of *reliable* data. The subject is comparatively new to this country, and quite so to this State. It is a scientific inquiry eminently necessary at this stage of American political life, and yet one that is necessarily slow in development.

It is the prevalent opinion that the cost of living is much greater in the United States than in European countries, but I question whether, upon a careful inquiry, such would be found to be true. I believe the reason for this general impression is, that European labor comes to this country and

* An address by Edward Atkinson, V. P. Am. Ass. for the Advancement of Science, at the Ann Arbor meeting, August, 1885.

reports the fact of the cheap rate at which life is supported abroad, but fails to show the great difference which exists in the bill of fare. The average workman will also report the cheapest articles in support of his statement, and leave an impression on the mind of his auditor that all the other necessaries of life are proportionate in cost. In other words, there is a color to all this kind of information which makes it unreliable, and before we are able to arrive at certain conclusions it will be necessary to institute a systematic, scientific inquiry under governmental supervision.*

From the data we possess, however, I am satisfied of the general result, viz.: That the labor of England and Europe is performed on a class of diet which is coarser than that used in this State, and that the climate is such, especially in England, as to materially assist the digestion and assimilation of that class of food. And I am further satisfied that our workmen cannot live on the same dietary, and that foreign labor, after a short residence in this country, finds it necessary to adopt a system, both in quantity and quality of food, more in conformity to the conditions with which they are surrounded.

I have, in examining this branch of my subject, been particularly impressed with the great variety of food which is consumed by American families, and also with the fact that our mechanics never cheapen their grade of living, except on the most absolute necessity. They buy the very best, even if they have to reduce the quantity by reason of hard times. They have the best coffee, tea, meats and flour; and, watching the sales of the retail markets of Baltimore City, and seeing the class of goods disposed of in the mining regions and other parts of the State, I am satisfied that our people are fed at a higher standard, and from the best facts in my possession, at no higher rate, generally, than the European cost.

* The Secretary of State of the United States has recently ordered consuls to report uniform daily rations of European workmen.

Clothing, rents, fuel—these are the principal items of expense which are dearer here than abroad.

Thus, in Maryland, coal costs \$5.50 to \$7.50 per ton. In England coal is \$2.25 to \$4 per ton, and in Germany \$3.50 to \$5 per ton.

What would be called a “good” suit of clothes can be bought in Maryland for \$16; in England, \$4.86; and in Germany, \$3.50 to \$5.

Shoes in Maryland cost from \$3 to \$5; in England, \$1.22 to \$2.55; and in Germany, 60 cents to \$1.90

A portion of a house in Baltimore city rents for \$7 per month, and a frame house in the country, such, for example, as those occupied by coal miners, rents for \$6 per month; that is to say, a general rent for workmen in Maryland, of \$78 per year. In England, rent of residence of general mechanics \$43 per year, and in Germany \$26 per year. On the other hand meat-stuffs are much cheaper in this country, and much more generally consumed.

Foreign labor very quickly acquires the habit of eating meat once a day, which as a rule, was the custom of the father of the family only, when they emigrated to our shores; and American workmen, in this State at least, do not stint themselves in the supply of animal food when it is possibly within their means to procure it. Meat is cheaper in Chicago than in Baltimore. Vegetables are cheaper in England and Europe than they are in America; they are cheaper in Baltimore than in Chicago. Groceries are cheaper in America than they are in England and Germany; taken altogether their cost is uniform between Baltimore and Chicago.

Therefore the workman does not live cheaper in Europe than he does in the States, so far as prices are concerned. There is very little difference between the general cost of living, when cheap meat is set off against dear rent, and cheap clothes against higher priced groceries, etc. And the

cheapness of living which the European labor submits to is the result of a different dietary; a dietary, I make bold to say, less dainty and various than is procured by the generality of our workmen. I believe, also, that our mechanics are able to surround themselves in their homes with more of the comforts of life than their brethren abroad, and they generally live at a higher standard.

To quote the words of Consul Lathrop, in his report to the Secretary of State (Consular Reports, Vol. I., Europe, 1884), speaking of labor in the west of England: "His (the laborer's) wages are less than in the United States. There is not a corresponding cheapness in the price of commodities. Rent is cheaper, but if the laborer spends less here in other directions it is because he does without, or buys inferior articles, and not because the general necessities of life are cheaper here than in the United States."

I do not believe, as a result of my experience and investigation, that the majority of our workmen are living as well to-day as they did a few years ago.

Except men find homes in the small streets and back places of the city, they cannot expect to occupy an entire house, and under those circumstances \$8 to \$10 per month is a low rent.

Our mechanics and workmen have been dividing houses between them, and the endeavor has been, with very great numbers, to reduce rents to \$6 per month; and there is no more striking evidence of the contraction of wages than this fact, because there is, I believe, no class of men whose ideas of living and whose standard of their right to live is so settled as that of the industrious American mechanic. His whole education as a citizen teaches him to live in his own house, to spread a comfortable and sufficient board, to clothe himself and his family seasonably and well, and to properly educate his children. And while the necessities arising from short time and reduced wages

have compelled a corresponding economy, yet in the mind of the mechanic it is not regarded as a permanent condition; neither are they, in spirit or reason, prepared to believe that (in the language of Mr. William Evarts), "In the near future the workingman cannot expect twice or thrice the wages of his fellow-workman in Europe."

The scientific analysis of foods is a subject not very greatly appreciated by Maryland workingmen. There exists a very great indifference on their part to the relative nutriment of foods. "Protein," "carbohydrates" and "fats" convey no very distinct idea to the mind of the average mechanic. He believes in a full market-basket, and has no exalted appreciation of any system which provides a "standard ration" for workingmen, or which would propose to feed our mechanics on some such plan as might prevail in the commissariat of a great hospital; neither have they much respect for a school of economy which, first reducing the rate of their wages, teaches them afterward to exist on a cheap diet and wisely informs them that there is as great nutriment in beans, scientifically cooked, as there is in beef-steak and "fixings." Nor have they any great respect for professors who practically teach that the highest aim of an American workman should be to discover the lowest rate at which he can live.

I now submit some carefully selected budgets of family expenses covering board and lodging, which will properly illustrate the variety, quality and quantity of food consumed, and fairly contrast the dietary of a mechanic's or laborer's family in Maryland and Europe. It is practically impossible to obtain facts concerning families whose situation exactly corresponds, but I have brought them as nearly together as possible.

In the following table the "Maryland family" is that of a journeyman painter residing in Baltimore City. He earns \$10.09 per week, and one brother living with him, who is

a harnessmaker, earns \$9 per week. The family consists of the mother and three sons, the wages quoted being the income of the family.

The "English family" is an example stated in the report of Consul Lane.* It represents the weekly expenses of a Tunstall carpenter's family; wages of husband, wife and three children, \$6—

Mechanic's Table—Dictionary No. 1.

MARYLAND FAMILY.				ENGLISH FAMILY.			
Quantity.	Name of Article.	Price.	Cost.	Quantity.	Name of Article.	Price.	Cost.
		\$ c	\$ c			\$ c	\$ c
6 lb....	Beef.....	0 15	0 90
1½ lbs.	Mutton.....	0 12	0 18	4¾ lbs	Fresh meat...	0 71
1 lb...	Sausage.....	0 11	0 11
1 bn'ch	Fish (fresh).	0 20	0 20
1½ lbs.	Ham.....	0 14	0 21	2 lbs..	Bacon.....	0 16	0 32
2.....	Cabbage....	0 7	0 14	Club dues....	0 16
¼ p'k.	Parsnips....	0 20	0 05	Taxes.....	0 09
½ p'k.	Turnips....	0 20	0 10	2 lbs..	Cheese.....	0 16	0 32
1 b'inch	Celery.....	0 08	0 08	2 oz...	Tobacco	0 06	0 12
¼ p'k.	Apples....	0 25	0 06	Beer.....	0 12
1½ p'k	Potatoes....	0 25	0 37	½ pk.	Potatoes.....	0 32	0 16
24½ lbs	Flour.....	0 3½	0 85	3 lbs..	Flour.....	0 04	0 12
1½ lbs.	Coffee.....	0 18	0 27	Bread.....	1 00
¼ lb.	Tea.....	0 60	0 15	¾ lbs.	Tea	0 48	0 36
5 lbs..	Sugar.....	0 06	0 30	4 lbs..	Sugar	0 07	0 28
3 lbs..	Butter.....	0 25	0 75	1 lb...	Butter.....	0 32
2 lbs..	Lard.....	0 08	0 16
1 doz.	Eggs.....	0 25	0 25
7 pts..	Milk.....	0 04	0 28	1 qt...	Milk.....	0 06	0 06
1½ gal.	Coal oil.....	0 14	0 07	1½ lbs	Candles.....	0 12	0 06
1½ lbs.	Soap.....	0 06	0 09	2 lbs..	Soap.....	0 06	0 12
½ lb..	Starch.....	0 06	0 03
.....	Fuel.....	0 90	Coal.....	0 48
.....	Rent.....	2 00	Rent.....	0 72
			\$8 50				\$5 52

The average cost of living per capita, per day, in the Maryland family is \$0.30 25, and in the English family it is \$0.15 72. In other words, the individual in the American family lives twice as well as the English individual.

The following is an example of the weekly budgets of

* Volume I., Consular Reports, page 75—"Europe." 1884.

laboring men's families in Baltimore, Md., and in Barmen, Germany. The Baltimore family consists of father, mother and three children. The father is employed as a laborer, and the wife earns what she can at home at sewing and washing. The estimate for the Barmen family is supplied by Consul Schoenle,* and consists of parents and five children—

Laborer's Table—Dietary No. 2.

MARYLAND FAMILY.				BARMEN FAMILY.			
Quantity.	Name of Article.	Price.	Cost.	Quantity.	Name of Article.	Price.	Cost.
.....	Rent.....	1 25	Rent.....	0 42
24½ lbs.	Flour.....	0 3½	0 85	Flour.....	0 05
6¼ lbs.	Corn meal...	0 02	0 12	21 lbs.	Bread (brown)	0 45
4 lbs...	Beef.....	0 10	0 40	Meat.....	0 15
5 lbs ..	Bacon	0 12	0 60	Bacon.....	0 12
1 lb...	Butter.....	0 25	0 25
1 lb...	Lard.....	0 08	0 08	Lard or butter	0 10
½ doz..	Eggs.....	0 25	0 13	Sausage fat...	0 07
3 pts...	Milk.....	0 04	0 12	1½ lbs	Apple butter.....	0 14
½ bus.	Potatoes.....	0 80	0 40	Potatoes.....	0 47
1 peck	Turnips.....	0 20	0 20	Sausage.....	0 12
¼ peck	Onions.....	0 30	0 08	Vegetables.....	0 05
1 qt...	Beans.....	0 10	0 10	Barley.....	0 04
3 cans.	Tomatoes.....	0 08	0 08	Beans.....	0 04
2.....	Cabbage.....	0 05	0 10	Peas.....	0 04
1½ lbs.	Codfish.....	0 08	0 12	Vinegar.....	0 01
½ lb..	Tea.....	0 40	0 20	Salad oil.....	0 02
1 lb...	Coffee	0 16	6 16	Rapeseed oil.....	0 07
5 lbs..	Sugar.....	0 06	0 30	Tobacco	0 04
.....	Coal oil, etc.	0 13	Kerosene	0 10
.....	Salt and pep.	0 10	Brandy.....	0 10
.....	Coal.....	0 60
.....	Wood.....	0 10
2 lbs..	Soap.....	0 06	0 12	Soap.....	0 10
.....	Sundries.....	0 08
.....	Medicine.....	0 15	Medicine.....	0 10
.....	Taxes	0 04
.....	Coal	0 14
			\$6 74				\$3 06

The average cost of living in the Maryland laborer's family per day, per capita, is \$0.19 25, and in the Barmen family it is \$0.06 24.

* Volume I., Consular Reports, page 11—"Europe," 1884.

The following table is taken from the before-mentioned "Address of Edward Atkinson at Ann Arbor, August, 1885," page 41—

Fifty-six adult females, factory operatives and the employees in charge of the boarding-house for six months in 1885 in Maryland.

Food bought by factory owners at wholesale prices—

Meat and fish.....	\$0.06 51
Milk, butter and cheese.....	0.02 86
Eggs.....	0.00 65
Total animal food.....	0.10 02
Vegetables.....	0.01 46
Cereals.....	0.01 73
Sugar and syrup.....	0.01 30
Tea and coffee.....	0.00 90
Fruit.....	0.00 35
Salt, spice, etc.....	0.00 40
Total cents per day.....	\$0.16 16

In comparing this table with the cost of supporting a mechanic's family, as shown in the "Mechanics' Table, Dietary No. 1," it will be seen that between \$0.30 25 and \$0.16 16 there is a difference of \$0.14 09 per capita to the advantage of the factory operatives' boarding-house system, but if we count in the mechanics' table only the *food* supplies, as is done in the boarding-house table, we find the average to be \$0.19 82, or \$0.3 66 dearer than the boarder. This advantage is the result of the provisions being purchased in the boarding-house at wholesale prices, and proves how much the mechanic is at a disadvantage when compelled to buy in small lots, or to buy on credit because of monthly payments, and leads to the conclusion that the co-operative store,* owned by the workmen themselves, would, beyond question, be a relief and benefit to the labor of the State.

The following table is a bill of supplies furnished to boats employed in the oyster fisheries of the Chesapeake bay. The crew consists of seven men, the captain taking extras for his own use. The time of the cruise is three weeks—

Quantity.	NAME OF ARTICLE.	Price.	Cost of Article.	Total.
1 barrel....	Flour "Super".....	\$ 5 25		
1 barrel....	Corn meal.....	.. 2 75		
20 pounds..	Bacon	08	1 60	
35 "	Corn beef.....	09	3 15	
15 "	Coffee.....	16	2 40	
5 gallons...	Molasses.....	35	1 75	
3 bushels...	Potatoes.....	60	1 80	
5 pounds...	Sugar.....	07	0 35	
80 "	Cod fish.....	07	5 60	
30 "	Hominy.....	02	0 60	
3 "	Rice.....	07	0 21	
7 gallons...	Oil.....	12	0 84	
1 pound....	Tea.....	60	0 60	
1 peck....	Onions.....	35	0 35	
.....	Pepper and salt.....	..	0 20	
				\$27 45

The cost of food per day, per capita, in this case is \$0.19 6.

The Following is a List of Prices of Miner's Supplies, as Charged in the Neighborhood of the Mines.

Quantity.	NAME OF ARTICLE.	Lowest Price.		Highest Price.		NAME OF ARTICLE.	Lowest Price.		Highest Price.		
		\$	¢	\$	¢		\$	¢	\$	¢	
Barrel.....	Flour.....	4	25	6	00	Pound.....	Prunes.....	0	09	0	09
Bushel.....	Corn.....	0	70	0	80	".....	Dried apples.....	0	08	0	08
100 pounds.....	Corn meal.....	1	40	1	40	".....	Cheese.....	0	16	0	16
".....	Buckwheat flour.....	3	00	3	00	".....	Hominy.....	0	04	0	04
Pound.....	Ham.....	0	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	14	".....	Dried peas.....	0	05	0	05
".....	Bacon.....	0	09	0	09	".....	Tomatoes (3 lbs.).....	0	10	0	10
".....	Bacon sides.....	0	13	0	13	".....	Corn.....	0	12	0	12
".....	" dry salt.....	0	11	0	11	".....	Fish.....	0	05	0	05
".....	Butter.....	0	20	0	30	Gallon.....	Syrup.....	0	50	0	75
Dozen.....	Eggs.....	0	28	0	30	".....	Molasses.....	0	30	0	40
Gallon.....	Miners' oil.....	0	60	0	75	Pound.....	Tea.....	0	30	0	80
".....	Coal oil.....	0	15	0	20	".....	Coffee.....	0	30	0	40
Ton.....	Coal.....	2	50	2	50	Gallon.....	Beans.....	0	17	0	40
Pound.....	Tobacco (chewing).....	0	50	0	80	12 to 16 lbs.....	Sugar.....	1	00	1	00
".....	" (smoking).....	0	30	0	40	Suit.....	Clothing.....	8	00	20	00
".....	Raisins.....	0	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	16	Yard.....	Drills and muslins.....	0	10	00	20
".....	Currants.....	0	08	Shoes.....	Shoes.....	1	50	2	25

FOOD PRICES.

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TABLE I.—Comparative Food Table, showing the Lowest and Highest Retail Market Prices.

Name of Article.	Quantity.	Maryland.	Massachusetts.	Illinois.	England.	Germany.
Beef.....	Pound.....	\$0 12	\$0 18	\$0 08	\$0 17	\$0 08½
Mutton.....	".....	0 10	0 15	0 10	0 17	0 12½
Veal.....	".....	0 12½	0 15	0 11	0 18	0 10
Pork.....	".....	0 09	0 12	0 10	0 12	0 11
Ham.....	".....	0 16	0 17	0 15	0 16	0 15
Sausage.....	".....	0 10	0 15	0 17	0 14	0 16
Rowls.....	Each.....	0 35	0 50	0 50	0 40	0 61
Herrings.....	".....	0 01½	0 03	0 01	0 01½	0 01½
Cod Fish.....	Pound.....	0 08	0 12	0 06	0 08	0 07
Potatoes.....	Peck.....	0 25	0 30	0 20	0 35	0 40
Cabbage.....	Head.....	0 03	0 10	0 04	0 06	0 05
Carrots.....	Bunch.....	0 05	0 05	0 07	0 03	0 04
Turnips.....	Peck.....	0 20	0 30	0 20	0 35	0 20
Peas.....	".....	0 20	0 25	0 35	0 20	0 12
Tomatoes.....	".....	0 15	0 20	0 25	0 35	0 20
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	0 15	0 20	0 30	0 10	0 15
Flour.....	Pound.....	0 03	0 04	0 03½	0 02	0 02¼
Sugar.....	".....	0 06	0 08	0 09½	0 06	0 08
Tea.....	".....	0 50	0 50	0 90	0 50	0 80
Coffee.....	".....	0 16	0 20	0 18	0 24	0 24
Butter.....	".....	0 20	0 35	0 30	0 40	0 32
Bacon.....	".....	0 12½	0 15	0 12	0 16	0 12
Cheese.....	".....	0 12	0 16	0 14½	0 16	0 16
Lard.....	".....	0 08	0 12	0 14	0 08	0 12
Coal.....	Ton.....	5 50	7 50	6 50	7 00	...
Clothes.....	Suit.....	12 00	25 00	12 00	18 00	15 00
Pantaloons.....	Pair.....	2 00	6 00	2 50	7 00	2 50
Vests.....	Each.....	0 90	1 80	0 80	2 00	2 00
Coats.....	".....	2 50	8 00	4 50	10 00	4 00
Boots.....	Pair.....	3 00	5 00	2 75	6 00	3 50
Shoes.....	".....	1 25	3 00	2 00	7 50	3 50
Shirts.....	Each.....	0 65	1 00	0 75	2 50	1 25
Hose.....	Pair.....	0 15	0 30	0 20	0 50	0 12
Underwear.....	Suit.....	1 00	2 50	1 25	3 00	2 00
Hats.....	Each.....	1 25	3 00	1 50	4 00	1 25

The result of the first three divisions of the foregoing table, relating to the United States, reduced to general averages, is as follows—

TABLE II.—Average Prices of Food.

ARTICLES.	MARYLAND.	MASSACHUSETTS.	ILLINOIS.
Meat and Fish.....	\$0 99½	\$0 87½	\$1 01½
Flour.....	0 03½	0 02	0 04
Vegetables.....	0 81½	0 92½	0 85
Eggs, Butter, Cheese and Lard	0 69	0 65½	0 98¼
Groceries.....	0 90	0 92	0 99¾
Totals.....	\$3 43½	\$3 39½	\$3 88½

The general averages of food prices, as stated in the foregoing table, are compared with the prices prevailing in England and Germany in the following table—

TABLE III.—General Averages—Prices of Food.

ARTICLES.	AMERICA.	ENGLAND.	GERMANY.
Meat and Fish	\$0 96	\$1 35½	\$1 53
Vegetables	0 86	0 62	0 67
Eggs, Butter, Cheese and Lard	0 78	0 77½	0 76½
Groceries.....	0 94	0 98	1 46½
Totals.....	\$3 54	\$3 73	\$4 43

That is to say, as “\$0.96” represents the general cost of meat and fish in the United States, so far as considered in the comparative table No. 1, so “\$1.35½” and “\$1.53” represent the proportionate cost in England and Germany; or, in other words, the quantity of meat and fish that would cost \$0.96 in America would cost \$1.35½ in England and

\$1.53 in Germany; and the comparative cost of food in the three countries is very properly represented in the general totals.*

* The following table is taken from the *N. Y. Herald* for Saturday, Dec. 19th, 1885—

FOOD CHEAPER THAN IT WAS.

A comparison of the prices of the principal articles of food at the present time, with the figures at which they were sold a few years ago, makes rather an interesting showing. The figures show how much lower in price food is now than it was when the price was governed largely by the premium on gold.

The prices quoted are the wholesale rates—

ARTICLES.	1870.	1879.	1885.
Granulated sugar.....	\$0 13	\$0 9 $\frac{5}{8}$	\$0 5 $\frac{7}{8}$
Lard.....	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	6.55	6.50
Crushed sugar.....	14 $\frac{3}{4}$	9	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Rio coffee.....	11 $\frac{7}{8}$	14	9 $\frac{5}{8}$
Japan tea.....	56 $\frac{1}{2}$	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	19
Rice.....	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
Mess pork.....	26 85	9 54	12 25
Butter.....	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	16.70	20
Cheese.....	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.30	12.25
Mackerel.....	29	18	23
Codfish.....	8.50	5.50	4.50
Wheat.....	1 29	1 13	82
Flour.....	5 50	4 42	2 80
Corn.....	1 00	49	59
Canned peaches.....	3 50	2 45	1 35
Canned oysters.....	1 50	75	90
Canned salmon.....	1 82	1 17	1 27

CHAPTER VI.

STRIKES.

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STRIKES.

The following is a summary of the labor difficulties which have occurred in Maryland during the existence of this office. None of them involved many men, were serious in their character or were of long duration. Yet, notwithstanding these facts, and the comparative insignificance of these disturbances between capital and labor, I estimate that the direct loss in wages resulting from the strikes inaugurated during 1884-86 is upward of \$262,800. Of these strikes only one trade gained any perceptible advantage in an increase of the rate of wages, to be placed as a set-off to the loss involved by their strike.

It is difficult to reach a correct estimate of the loss actually sustained by the workmen, because some find other employments during the pendency of the strikes; but, when we allow that by so doing they deprive other labor of their earnings, it measures up to about the same thing as far as the general good is concerned, and is a convincing evidence of the financial injury which strikes are to the workman. As protests against oppression, as a means to maintain just and equitable principles between employer and employee, there may be occasions where strikes can be justified, but as a rule they are a grave misfortune to labor, are productive of much misery, distress and crime, and the figures

prove that the less they are resorted to the better it will be for the prosperity and happiness of the industrial masses—

August, 1884.

Italian Labor.—About 150 Italian laborers employed on the Catonsville Short Line railroad struck work because their wages were not fully paid by the contractor, and because their rations were not up to their requirements in quantity or quality. They assaulted the contractor, which the men claimed was aggravated by his firing a pistol in their midst. The contractor ultimately settled with the hands, and discharged them.

December, 1884.

Miners (Coal).—About 280 miners struck work at the Koonz mine, because of the removal of the scales from the mouth of the mine to the dump, a distance of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The case was adjudicated by the Circuit Court, and the men were defeated. Strike lasted about 10 days; no disturbances occurred.

February, 1885.

Oyster Shuckers.—Strike of oyster shuckers at Annapolis, caused by the packers reducing the rate of pay from 20 cents to 15 cents per gallon. The employers claimed that the Annapolis measure was only 8 pints, and much smaller than the Baltimore measure, for which Baltimore shuckers received 20 cents. Of 350 raw shuckers employed in Annapolis houses, about 200 went on strike. They received pecuniary assistance from the Baltimore shuckers, but the weather being severe and the tongers being frozen out of work on the water, they came in and took the place of the strikers, thus enabling the packers

to fill their orders. Very few of the strikers returned during the season, and the strike failed to raise the rate to 20 cents per gallon. No disturbances occurred.

February, 1885.

Glassblowers.—Strike of glassblowers and apprentices in Baltimore. This strike resulted from an endeavor on the part of the employer to run his establishment with apprentices, but when, after due notice to the journeymen, he discharged them, all the apprentices struck work. The strike involved 31 journeymen and 49 apprentices. The employers engaged non-union labor, and the contest was very spirited on both sides. No open violence occurred. The strike lasted until September, 1885, when the employers came to an understanding with the union, and the hands returned to work, the house to be conducted under union rules.

April, 1885.

Tin Canmakers.—There was a strike among tin canmakers commencing April 1, and continuing until the 1st of May, the object being to obtain 30 cents per hundred for 2-pound and 35 cents per hundred for 3-pound cans. A compromise was effected on 25 and 30 cents respectively. In about two weeks the factories levelled up both sizes to 25 cents per hundred.

July, 1885.

There was a second strike in July, 1885, resulting in an increase of wages to 30 and 35 cents.

October, 1885.

A third strike occurred in October, when the price was again raised to 60 and 65 cents. All three strikes were successful, the last two being of only a few days duration. The entire trade was involved, and all the strikes were conducted in perfect order.

May, 1885.

Shoemakers.—A small strike confined to one establishment in Baltimore City, involving about 30 hands. The trouble was in respect to the bill of wages in one line of work. The men removed their tools and were paid off.

April, 1885.

Stovemoulders.—Strike at Port Deposit involving about 25 men. The origin of the difficulty dated back to the spring of 1884, when a reduction of 10 per cent. was made in wages. In January, 1885, a further reduction was proposed by the employers. On the 1st of April, 1885, the moulders demanded a restoration of the 10 per cent. to their wages, and struck work to enforce their demands. Some few assaults of a trifling nature occurred, and the citizens manifested an inclination to boycott the strangers who were brought to fill the places of the strikers, but the foundry continued in operation, and the strike failed in its object.

August, 1885.

Shipcarpenters and Caulkers.—A general strike of all the carpenters and caulkers in Baltimore City, about 450 hands. Strike resulted from a proposition of the employers to reduce the wages from \$3 to \$2.50 per day. While some few men had returned to work at the reduced rate, the great bulk of workmen were still idle at the time of writing this report (December, 1885), and the strike had not terminated.*

September, 1885.

Tinners.—A small local strike in Baltimore in the Maryland Metre Company's works, respecting a reduction

* The Shipcarpenters' strike was terminated in May, 1886, the men returning to work at reduced rates and the employers to engage only union hands.

of wages. The strike did not involve more than 12 men and was adjusted in two days, the men accepting the reduction.

December, 1885—

Metalworkers.—The metalworkers employed in F. X. Ganter's show-case works, Baltimore, struck against a reduction of wages. They were supported by the Cabinetmakers' union. The strike was ended on January 7th by arbitration. A committee of the Federation of Labor having interposed to adjust the difficulty, the strike terminated January 11th, 1886.

December, 1885—

Pianomakers.—About 75 pianomakers employed by Mr. Charles Stieff, of Baltimore City, are involved in a strike, the cause being a question respecting wages, but principally an objection on the part of the hands (Germans) to the employment of the assistant foreman. This strike developed some bad feeling between the parties, and had not terminated at the time of going to press, having continued nearly six months, notwithstanding several efforts by outside parties to adjust the differences.*

* Two large strikes have been inaugurated in the opening months of 1886, viz.: A strike among carddrivers in Baltimore, which was terminated by the men returning to work without gaining any perceptible advantage. Also a strike of all the coalminers in the George's Creek coal region, which was still actively maintained at the time of going to press. This strike was to obtain 10 cents extra per ton for mining coal.

CHAPTER VII.

OPINIONS OF THE TRADES.

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OPINIONS OF THE TRADES.

I have compiled, in this chapter, some of the opinions with which the spaces for "Remarks" have been filled up by the various trades answering the blank forms which were issued by this office.

I have introduced them here, not because of their intrinsic value, but for the reason, that a very large number of correspondents failed to fill up the spaces for "Remarks," being deterred either by a fear that their names would be published, or because they did not understand the object intended to be reached.

The purpose was to obtain an expression of the opinions of such a number of individuals engaged in each trade, as would lead to a just conclusion respecting the wants, necessities and condition of the workers employed therein.

Quite a large number of answers were very far from useful, some were personal, and the great majority of the forms were not filled at all. It is with the hope that the following publication may assist the general public to a better appreciation of the purpose for which blanks are issued from this office, that this brief chapter is submitted.

Blank 434.] HORSE COLLAR MAKER.

Employer.—"My experience after having passed through the years of a regular apprentice, and having worked as a journeyman, and for more than thirty years as an employer, is—that eight hours faithful work is all

that should be demanded of apprentices, or men, in the manufacture of horse collars. Longer hours tell seriously and perceptibly on men after they pass 40 years of age, that is to say, men who work long hours in early life feel its effects earlier than men who work shorter hours during the years of early manhood."

Blank 76.] PICTURE FRAME AND GILDER.

Employer.—"I would submit, in regard to labor, that it is almost impossible to find your Americans to apprentice themselves to any trade. They would prefer to go, at a small salary, as errand boys, or in almost any other capacity than wear an apron; and the consequence is they grow up in idleness and call themselves "clerks," and when an advertisement for clerks is made a general rush of worthless clerks is the result."

Blank 249.] PLASTERER.

Employee.—"I think the building business has been over-done in the city of Baltimore. Very much of it has got into the hands of parties who are not builders by trade, but build to sell. The work is done in the poorest manner, the plasterer and painter covering up the defects, which are many under the present system. I think it would be much better for both the buyer and plasterer if the State would appoint an inspector for building work. The plasterer would do less work in a day, but do it much better. The work done under the present contract system is not safe. If eight hours was a legal day, plasterers would make more days. Please remember I am speaking for myself, there are many plasterers who have not made as many days as I have."

Blank 1320.]

SHOE FACTORY.

Operative (Female).—“This factory is very closely built and partitioned off. There are four stairways, but you must go through long, dark entries, not a window or light of any kind. You must keep hold of the railings to find out when you reach the next stairway. In this factory they keep the doors locked during working hours, and allow no one to see the girls, even to bring their dinner. Men and girls both make poor wages. Girls have to work very hard to make \$6 per week. There have been many of them who would have been glad if they had work enough to enable them to earn \$3 per week since the 15th of November up to the present time. There are many places in the city just like this.”

Blank 285.]

WAGON AND BLACKSMITH.

Employer.—“This space for ‘remarks’ is altogether too small. It would require one of the United States Senate short-hand writers to do justice to the abuses practiced in the manufacture of vehicles in this locality (Alleghany county). The trade is in the hands of *convicts*, who are kept for life in the *Moundsville penitentiary*, making wagons, and the contractors put them at every cross road, ready for sale, at prices that honest men who pay for their labor cannot compete with.

“Our great need is employment. If every article manufactured in the prisons of our country was lawfully stamped as *convict* labor, instead of some contractor’s high-sounding name, the persons who ignorantly use the article would let it alone as if it would contaminate them. You can publish the above if you see fit.”

Blank 1099.]

BOILERMAKER.

Employer.—“I think it would benefit both employers and employed if the tariff was reduced to a nominal rate. * * * The cheaper work is done the greater will be the demand. A high tariff does not increase the rate of wages. If the employees are dissatisfied the employers import men to break up any resistance that might be offered against a reduction in wages, the policy of the employer being to keep the supply greater than the demand, and so they are masters of the situation. I think all new improvements in machinery should come here free of duty, thus enabling us to reap the benefit of foreign as well as American ingenuity. There should be some provision made for the aged, who have given their youth and early years to labor to save them from becoming inmates of almshouses, it being impossible to live comfortably and lay by sufficient for support. If a person lives to be old few employers will give him work. I speak from experience, being 67 years of age. In 1883, I was idle six months.”

Blank 157.]

BRICKMASON.

Employer.—“From the answers to the questions you will see that we average \$3.25 a day for about 7 months, (\$815.50,) which, after paying \$700 for board and clothing, leaves a nett \$115.50. Take money for amusement, it leaves \$75 clear. As it sometimes happens a man gets sick or is injured; he will neither have money nor home. On a new building a man is often injured by the scaffold breaking down, the boards breaking, either from too much weight on them, or because they are rotten. Another danger is that when we are working in the second story and only half covered with boards, if a brick

should fall through on a man it would injure him, and if a man fell through it would possibly kill him. I therefore suggest that a law should be passed requiring extra strong trestles to be used for scaffolding, and that the floors should be covered all over with new boards, for the protection of the men on the scaffold or in the cellar."

Blank 1093.]

BROOMMAKER.

Employer.—“The broom business has been on the decrease for the past twelve years, since I have been working journeywork, and I think it is caused by men working in cellars or kitchens, and employing small boys to peddle their goods from door to door, selling brooms at little or no profit. I found it almost impossible for the manufacturer to sell any brooms to the grocery trade in Baltimore. I was employed in one of the largest factories in that city for five years and know, that to sell brooms to the trade there, they had to sell them at cost or less, in order to sell other goods, and I think that the suppression of tenement-house labor would be a great benefit to the broom makers of Baltimore. The trade outside of that city is looked after very closely by wholesale grocers who handle brooms made by convicts in other states. Moundsville, W. Va., prison is now supplying one of the largest houses in Baltimore. I venture to say that there is not a broom maker in Baltimore, who is working piece work, that averaged \$4 per week last year. I am a native of that city and only left when I saw that it was impossible for a man to live at the prices paid for making brooms. I think that the manufacturers are paying all they can, considering the low price at which they sell

their goods ; the trouble is caused by tenement-house, and convict contract labor, which I hope will, some day, be abolished.

Blank 94.] PAPERBOX MANUFACTURE.

Employer.—“The business that we are engaged in is, at the present, very unsatisfactory. It seems as if the majority of manufacturers endeavored to see how close they can sell goods. Of course the labor must, to a great extent suffer. We experience considerable difficulty in having hands start work promptly. The female department seldom makes full time, although our rule is $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 6, or 10 hours (half hour for dinner) The great majority do not average over eight hours work. It appears to me that manufacturers in the city, in this line, should have an association to protect the business, but such a thought is not feasible.”

Blank 109.] PAPERBOX MANUFACTURE.

Employer.—“It is a great difficulty to get young men from 15 to 20 years, who are willing to learn and to work.”

Blank 632.] PRINTER.

Employer.—“The answers given to the enclosed are as near correct as can be given. All mechanics and work people in this part of the state (Washington county), receive very inadequate compensation. Some printers are only making one dollar a day, who have families of three or four persons to support. Other trades are paid in the same proportion. Another thing is, that the hour's work-people are compelled to work, are too many for the money received for such. If the General Assembly could enact a law that would benefit the laboring people of the State, it would be the grandest act ever enacted.

Blank 1037.]

MIRRORS, ETC.

Employer.—“Instead of an 8-hour law we are in favor of better schools, and some compulsory law to make parents send their children to school for a certain portion of the year, which would be beneficial both to the employer and employee.”

Blank 84.]

STRAW HATS.

Employer.—“Water should be free, taxes as light as possible, to encourage manufacturers to settle in our city. More manufactories is what the working people want. One large manufactory will do more towards supporting a community, or put them in a way to support themselves, than half the bankers and lawyers in the city.”

Blank 276.]

Miner (Coal).—“Boys employed around mines range from 10 years of age up. The majority of them work with fathers or brothers as miners, claiming not less than half a turn, which is, I think, a detriment to all men who have a family to support and who have no boys. Thus, a boy who is able to do nothing, comparatively, will receive at pay-day half as much as an able-bodied man, which, I think, is not right. Not that I am opposed to boys working in the mines, provided that they are of suitable age and can read their own name when they see it written; and when I see men bringing boys to work regardless of the fact that they can neither read nor write, I think they should be compelled to send them to school until they are, say 14 years old. I know men who are so ignorant they cannot put down the number of the cars they load. I am in favor of compulsory education. I know the need of education, as I did not go to school after I was

12 years of age. I never had the chance, being taken to work as lots are now, when they should be at school."

Blank 283.]

Miner (Coal).—“The only remark that I have to make is, that we do not get enough wages for our work, and that there are a lot of children working in the mines who are too young, and that where a miner has three or four children working all the cash comes on his name, and that is where the large wages come from that we read of in the city papers. The reporters know nothing about what a miner can earn. I could say a great deal, but a man dare not talk now-a-day, or he is apt to starve, and what little he does make it takes that to keep him living.”

Blank 1079.]

Miner (Coal).—“Regarding pay-days, there ought to be something done, as two months' work is done before one is paid for. I would suggest two weeks' pay as best for the laboring class in the coal region, as I think many a dollar can be saved for the working class in procuring merchandise, without any other expense to the operator.”

Blank 673.]

Miner (Coal).—“I believe in arbitration for the settlement of difficulties. I am satisfied with 10 hours' labor and no longer, and over-time paid for. The dock system is a bad abuse. When the dock boss finds a few pounds of slate or bone-coal in the car, he takes ten hundred-weight off the car; it is very unjust. There ought to be some allowance, but I do not think it ought to be more than a hundred-weight for six or eight pounds of slate or bone-coal. That would be more just than the present system. Wages ought to be paid every two weeks.

CHAPTER VIII.

LAWS.

CONTAINING THE LAWS REFERRED TO IN THE BODY OF THIS
REPORT, AND SUCH OTHERS AS MORE DIRECTLY
APPLY TO THE LABOR OF THE STATE.

PREFACE.

The following synopsis of laws which relate more particularly to workmen, is not intended as a digest of the law (such an undertaking would be evidently beyond the scope of this report); but the Bureau has received so many inquiries from mechanics, and others interested in the legal status of labor, that I deemed it advisable to include a general review of such laws as more directly affect the workman, because this report will circulate freely among citizens employed in our industries, and will find a place in the libraries of our trade organizations.

I have been directed in the selection I have made by the aforesaid inquiries, and I leave it to the individual to seek that more detailed information which special cases require, either from the books of the law, or at the hands of experienced legal advisers.

I further hope that it may prove of service to the Legislature, as a short guide to members who are interested in the subject of industrial legislation.

THOMAS C. WEEKS,
Chief of Bureau.

CHAPTER VIII.

LAWS.

APPRENTICES.

[Revised Code, Article 54.]

SECTION 1. The Orphans' Court has jurisdiction in all matters pertaining to masters and apprentices.

Section 2. An appeal lies from decision of said court to the Circuit Court of the county, or the Superior Court of Baltimore City, provided, it be taken within thirty days from date of decision of the Orphans' Court.

Section 3. If complaint of apprentice is well founded the court may fine the master or mistress a sum not exceeding twenty-five dollars for first offense, and not exceeding fifty dollars for second offense.

Section 4. The Orphans' Court can discharge apprentices because of imposition or ill behavior of the master or mistress, or because of the unreasonableness of the terms of the contract, and rebind the apprentice to another master or mistress of the same trade as the first, the new master to pay to the original master such money as shall be awarded by two persons of the like trade, appointed by the court.

Section 5. The Orphans' Court has power to discharge a master or mistress from their obligation, because of incorrigible temper or ill behavior of the apprentice.

Section 6. No master or mistress must remove apprentice out of the State (except mariners). A justice of the peace may require security to prevent such removal, and on failure of master or mistress to give such security, may discharge the apprentice.

Section 7. If any judge or justice of the peace be informed, or know himself, of the cruel or improper usage of an apprentice by his master or mistress, he may require said master or mistress to enter into security to appear at the Orphans' Court to answer complaint, and in default of security being given, may place apprentice under care of some other person, who shall be bound to bring the apprentice before the Circuit or Criminal Court to abide such determination as shall be made.

Section 8. If an apprentice be convicted of any offence, and his master or mistress pay the fine, penalty, or costs, he can be compelled to serve such longer time beyond the term of his apprenticeship as the court may direct.

Section 9. An apprentice removed from the keeping of his master or mistress may be recovered as a personal chattel is recovered by action of replevin.

Sections 10, 11, 12. The Orphans' Court may bind out poor orphans and children whose parents are in extreme indigence, the inclination of said parents to be consulted, as far as reasonable, in regard to the selection of the master or mistress provided.

Section 13. If any relation or other person will give security for the sufficient and comfortable maintenance and education of said child, then the court shall not proceed to bind out said child.

Section 14. The child so bound can be brought before the Orphans' Court by a citation issued to the sheriff or constable.

Section 15. Males are bound to the age of 21 years, and females to the age of 18 years. The contract of apprenticeship shall provide that the apprentice shall receive reasonable

education in reading, writing, and arithmetic, be taught a useful trade or art, and be supplied with suitable clothes and maintenance.

Section 16. Any two justices can bind out any child the court could bind under the foregoing terms; provided the contract of apprenticeship so made shall within two months thereafter be approved by the Orphans' Court, and recorded among the records of the court.

Section 17. Trustees of the poor in county may bind out orphans or children in poorhouse under similar terms as apprentices are bound by the Orphans' Court.

Section 18. The indenture of such apprenticeship is to be lodged with the Register of Wills of county within thirty days, under a penalty of ten dollars, to be recovered by presentment in the Circuit Court, for use of county, the register to record such indenture in the same manner as indentures taken by the Orphans' Court.

Section 19. During recess of Orphans' Court the trustees of the poor may bind out children of paupers or vagrants, the contract of apprenticeship to be approved within two months by the Orphans' Court and properly recorded.

Section 20. Any father may bind out his child as an apprentice on reasonable terms for any time not longer than the full age of such child—that is to say, boys until 21, and girls until 18 years of age; and the terms of such apprenticeship, with the age of the apprentice, shall be contained in an indenture under the hand and seal of the father and master, and the said indenture shall be lodged by the said master with the register of wills of the county where such master resides within thirty days after the execution thereof, under a penalty of ten dollars, to be recovered and applied as the penalty mentioned in the 18th section of this Article, and the register shall receive and record the said indenture.

Section 21. Any manufacturer or mechanic may take, as an apprentice, any male child, until he shall arrive at

the age of 21 years; provided, that the contract so made shall specify the age of the child at the time of making the same, and that the parent or parents of such child, if living, or, if an orphan, the Orphans' Court of such county as the child shall reside in, shall see the contract within two months after its execution, and notify its approbation thereof by an indorsement on the same; and that the said contract be then recorded among the records of the Orphans' Court; and when so recorded, the said contract shall be of the same validity as if the same had been originally made with the father of said child, or with the Orphans' Court.

Section 22. The directors of the Maryland Penitentiary, or any three of them, the managers of the House of Refuge and other institutions especially empowered to bind minors as apprentices, may bind out convicts whose time expires before they are of age, children brought into the institution by their mothers, or born there; the indentures to be recorded in the Orphans' Court within thirty days.

Section 23. Apprentices in the country are to perform reasonable service in wheat, rye and hay harvests.

Section 24. For enticing away or harboring an apprentice, parties can be fined for every offense twenty dollars, one-half to State and one-half to informer, and the father, guardian or master are entitled to an action on the case against the offender.

Section 25. Orphans' Court may compel performance of defective indentures as justice and equity may require, and master may detain apprentice until discharged by court.

Section 26. On an apprentice absconding or absenting himself from service, the Orphans' Court can cause him to make compensation, either in service or money, as justice and equity may require; his person and goods being liable.

Section 27. If a master die, his apprentice is subject to widow until discharged by the Orphans' Court.

Section 28. A widow may assign an apprentice to

another person of the same trade as the original master (with consent of parties binding him), and the apprentice is bound to serve the residue of original term to the new master.

Section 29. Female apprentices are to remain with the widow, or be surrendered by her to the Orphans' Court, to be again bound out.

Section 30. If father of apprentice will not consent to widow's assignment, the Orphans' Court, or two justices of the peace, may appoint three persons of the same trade, who are to value the residue of the term of apprenticeship, and the father may elect to pay the sum of the valuation to the widow, or she has power to make the assignment, with the approbation of the Orphans' Court.*

BARBERS.

[*Sabbath-breaking.*]

ACTS 1874, CHAPTER 71.

Section 126. No barber saloon to be kept open or used on Sunday, under penalty of \$50 to \$100 fine for first offence, \$100 to \$500 fine and imprisonment 10 to 30 days for second offence, and double preceding fine and imprisonment for 30 to 60 days for each subsequent occasion.

*The apprenticeship laws of this State are very complete, but, except in the case of reformatory institutions, are seldom resorted to. Indeed, the custom of apprenticeship has lapsed to such an extent that the majority of people are ignorant of the existence of the law. The system of manufacture is so completely changed by the introduction of machinery and the subdivision of labor, that boys no longer serve the terms of apprenticeship which were formerly required. And even where apprentices are taken, there is seldom any legal contract entered into between the parties. To illustrate how little attention is paid to the laws regulating apprenticeship, I note the fact that during the years 1884-85 30 orphans were apprenticed by the Orphans' Court of Baltimore City, 14 wards by the managers of the House of Refuge, 2 by the Baltimore Orphan Asylum and 7 by fathers, two of which proceedings were before justices of the peace, afterward confirmed by the Court; that is 22 girls and 31 boys, 53 in all, only 7 of which were voluntary apprenticeships on the part of parents. It is this disregard of the apprenticeship laws which has filled the trades with incompetent labor, and has called for the establishment of manual training schools to supply that knowledge which is no longer acquired in the shops. An apprenticeship wherein there is no obligation to teach or learn the processes of the trade,

NATIONAL BUREAU (LABOR.)

[*Forty-eighth Congress, U. S., Session 1884-85.—National Bureau, June 27th, 1884.*]

CHAPTER 127.

AN ACT to establish a Bureau of Labor.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That there shall be established in the Department of the Interior a Bureau of Labor, which shall be under the charge of a Commissioner of Labor, who shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

The Commissioner of Labor shall hold his office for four years, and until his successor shall be appointed and qualified, unless sooner removed, and shall receive a salary of three thousand dollars a year. The Commissioner shall collect information upon the subject of labor, its relation to capital, the hours of labor, and the earnings of laboring men and women, and the means of promoting their material, social, intellectual and moral prosperity.

is one in which the boy is used only as a means of profit, without regard to his future, and he finds himself, at the end, only useful in the particular division of the trade in which he has been kept constantly engaged. Or else, it is one wherein the boy becomes unreasonably puffed up with a conception of his own ability, and breaks away to find cheap employment, before he is competent either to direct his course, or to discharge his duties as a journeyman mechanic, and that to the injury of the respectable workman in the trade. Apart from all other considerations, the training in the system of the shop, and the lessons of obedience to the orders of his master, is of inestimable worth to a boy during the opening years of life devoted to apprenticeship, and it is a training which cannot be afforded in any manual school system; the instruction in which, good though it may be, cannot be other than theoretical in comparison to the actual work done in the shop, and the practical lessons of real life that are to be there acquired. There is only one hope for mechanics, and that is the preservation of their manual arts by the proper qualification of the artizan, and the several trade organizations ought to look to a more strict enforcement of the law regulating apprenticeship. A failure in this direction will certainly reduce the mechanic to a yet lower level as a portion of the productive machinery, by depriving him of that general knowledge and skill which is his best security and only guarantee of independence. The present system has a tendency to reduce wages by filling our industries with incompetent workmen, and no trade more clearly illustrates the fact than the condition of the printing trade in the State of Maryland.

The Secretary of the Interior, upon the recommendation of such Commissioner, shall appoint a chief-clerk, who shall receive a salary of two thousand dollars per annum, and such other employees as may be necessary for the said Bureau—provided, that the total expense shall not exceed twenty-five thousand dollars per annum.

During the necessary absence of the Commissioner, or when the office shall become vacant, the chief-clerk shall perform the duties of the Commissioner.

The Commissioner shall annually make a report in writing to the Secretary of the Interior of the information collected and collated by him, and containing such recommendations as he may deem calculated to promote the efficiency of the Bureau.

Approved June 27th, 1885.

BUREAU (INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS AND INFORMATION.)

[*Laws of Maryland—State Bureau.*]

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 211.

AN ACT to provide for the collection of statistics and Information concerning the various branches of industry practiced in this State, and the needs thereof, and the abuses which exist therein.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* That a bureau to collect "statistics and information" concerning the various branches of industry practiced in the State, and the needs thereof, and the abuses which exist therein, shall be established, and that the chief of said bureau shall make full report thereof to the General Assembly at each session thereof.

Section 2. *And be it enacted,* That the said bureau shall consist of a chief, to be appointed by the Governor of this State, by and with the consent of the Senate.

Section 3. *And be it enacted,* That the sum of twenty-five hundred dollars be, and the same is hereby annually appro-

priated, to pay the salaries and the expenses necessary to the execution of the duties imposed upon the said bureau by this act, and that the said money hereby annually appropriated be, and the same is hereby directed to be paid by the Treasurer of this State, upon the warrant of the Comptroller, in such sums and at such times as the Governor of this State shall, from time to time, direct by his order in writing.

Approved March 27th, 1884.

CANNED GOODS.

[*Checks for Canned Goods.*]

ACTS 1882, CHAPTER 240.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* If any person shall falsely make, alter, forge or counterfeit, or cause or procure to be falsely made, altered, forged or counterfeited, or shall willingly aid or assist in falsely making, altering, forging or counterfeiting, or shall alter or pass, knowing it to be falsely made, altered, forged or counterfeited, any metallic check, card or other substance or device, used or intended to be used by any person engaged in hermetically sealing or canning fruits, vegetables, or other articles of food in this State, as an evidence of indebtedness from or by any person engaged in preserving food, as aforesaid, to any person employed by him, her or them, or used as an evidence of record of the state of accounts existing between said employer and any of his employees, shall be deemed a felon, and on conviction in any court in this State be sentenced to the penitentiary for not less than one nor more than five years.

Section 2. *Be it enacted,* If any person shall steal, take, and carry away any metallic check, card, or other device, used or delivered by any employer or employers in this State to his, her, or their employees, having stamped, written or otherwise indicated thereon, any numerals or other characters intended to indicate the sum or sums which may be due from

the said employer to the said employees, he or she shall be deemed a felon, and on conviction thereof shall be punished in the same manner and to the same extent as if he or she had been convicted of stealing, taking and carrying away lawful money of the United States of the same legal value as the sum or sums which the said metallic check, card, or other device, may represent as being due from the said employer or employers, to any employee or employees, whether the same shall have been issued and delivered to any employee, or only stamped or otherwise so prepared as to be a representation of value in the hands of the holders thereof.

Section 3. *Be it enacted*, That this act shall take effect from the date of its passage.

Approved May 3d, 1882.

TIN CANS.

[*Penitentiary Goods.*]

ACTS 1870, CHAPTER 141.

Section 18. The directors may enter into such contracts for the employment of convicts in the penitentiary, and for the sale of manufactures in the institution as they may deem proper; but shall not enter into any contract for the making or manufacturing of the articles known as tin cans, used for oyster or fruit packing purposes, nor employ any convicts in the making thereof.*

CONSPIRACY.

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 266.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland*, That Article 30 of the Code of Public General Laws of this State, title "Crimes and Punishments," be and the same is hereby amended by adding thereto the following additional section, under the new sub-title of "Conspiracy."

*This is the only law prohibiting the manufacture of certain goods in the penitentiary. In other words, the tin canmakers are the only mechanics protected by law against convict labor.

Section *a*. An agreement or combination by two or more persons to do, or procure to be done, any act in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen, shall not be indictable as a conspiracy, if such act committed by one person would not be punishable as an offence. Nothing in this section shall affect the law relating to riot, unlawful assembly, breach of the peace, or any offence against any person or against property.*

Approved April 8th, 1884.

EXEMPTIONS.

[*From Execution.*]

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 504.

Section 4. *And be it enacted*, That all wearing apparel, mechanical text-books, and books of professional men, tools of mechanics, and all tools or other mechanical instruments or appliances, moved or worked by the hand or foot, necessary to the practice of any trade or profession, and used in the practice thereof, shall be exempt from execution, in addition to the property hereinbefore exempted; but this section shall not apply to any books, tools, mechanical instruments or appliances, kept for sale or barter.

Approved April 8th, 1884.

Attachment (Against Wages or Hire of Labor.)

ACTS 1874, CHAPTER 45.

Section 53. No attachments upon warrant, upon judgment, upon two non ests, or upon original process, shall

* Judging from experience, this act has proved of the greatest advantage to the labor of this State. Whereas employees were formerly subject to the most strenuous rules of an antiquated English law, depriving them of rights which, in principle at least, were fully enjoyed by the employer, they are by this act given the liberty to form such combination, not otherwise illegal, which they may consider advantageous to their interests. A close observation of the course of a trade controversy which has taken place since the passage of this act, convinced me that the labor fully appreciated this right and availed themselves of the protection afforded by the law, and, in my judgment, it was this relief which helped them to success in their endeavors and brought the contest to a more speedy conclusion. I do not believe there has been any attempt to take advantage of the law unwisely, and by their moderation during strikes the workmen have displayed their appreciation of the act.

issue against, be levied on, or affect the wages or hire of any laborer, or employee, not actually due at the date of such attachment in the hands of the employers, whether such employers be individuals or corporations, unless the debt or judgment upon which such attachment is issued shall, exclusive of cost, exceed the sum of one hundred dollars; and the sum of one hundred dollars of such wages or hire due to any laborer or employee, by any employer or corporation, shall always be exempt from attachment by any process whatever, etc.

Section 54. The wages or hire of any person or persons not residing in this State, shall be subject to attachment upon judgment, upon warrant, or upon two non ests in the same manner and to no larger extent than the wages or hire of any person or persons resident in the State.*

* This law, good in its intention, and relieving the workman from the misfortunes attending the execution of legal process against his wages, reacts in another direction. It makes accommodations of credit more difficult to obtain. It may be said that the workman should not go in debt; that may be said of all classes of society. It is true in theory, but in practice, where wages are small, very often families large, and payments are by the month, it is simply impossible for a workman to do otherwise, and neither this law, or any other, will suffice to stop the credit system, especially during times of depression and while wages are paid by the month. Therefore, while in one direction it is an advantage, in another it cannot be so regarded. The law has been constantly evaded in the case of railroad employees by laying the attachment in another State, through which the road passes. In construing this law, the Court of Appeals of Maryland has said that it "prohibits the issuing, as well as the levying, of an attachment to affect wages which may become due after its date, where the debt or judgment on which it is founded does not exceed one hundred dollars." * * * "What we understand the Legislature to have declared by this act is, that if an employee contracts a debt exceeding one hundred dollars, or has a judgment recovered against him for more than that sum, exclusive of costs, his creditor may issue an attachment upon it, and that attachment may be laid in the hands of his employer, and if his wages, or salary, due at the time, or that may accrue due before the trial, are in excess of one hundred dollars, then *such excess* shall be affected by the attachment and shall be liable to condemnation. That being in our judgment the true construction and effect of this statute, it is hardly necessary to say that if an employer, as garnishee, disregards such an attachment, and after it is laid in his hands and before trial, pays over the accruing wages, or salary, in excess of one hundred dollars to the employee, he does it at his peril."

First National Bank of Hagerstown. Gar. vs. Weekler, 52 Md., p. 30.

FACTORIES.

[*Inspection—Fire.*]

ACTS 1882, CHAPTER 74.

SECTION 1. Provides for the inspection, by the inspector of buildings, of all manufactories employing twenty-five or more persons, "now erected or that may hereafter be erected" in the City of Baltimore, for the purpose of ascertaining if said buildings have the proper means of exit in case of fire or panic, and if in his judgment the said buildings are not properly provided, to notify the owner or lessees in writing and instruct them to provide the proper means.

Section 2. And if, after such notice, the said owners fail so to do within the space of thirty days, they shall forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars, and twenty-five dollars per day for every day thereafter that he, she or they refuse to make such alterations, to be recovered the same as other fines are recovered.

Section 3. Empowers the Mayor and City Council to provide by ordinance for such assistants to the inspector as in their judgment may be necessary for carrying into effect the law, and to fix the salary of such assistants, and gives the Mayor and Council authority to enact such further provisions as may be necessary in the premises.*

Approved March 21st, 1882.

FACTORIES.

[*Health of Employees.*]

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 265.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* That all factories, manufacturing establishments or workshops in the State shall be kept in a cleanly condition and free from effluvia arising from any drain, privy or other nuisance, and no factory, manufacturing establishment or workshop shall be so overcrowded while work is carried on

*The last section of this Act might be put in operation to some advantage. As an example, see Chapter VII., Blank 1320.

therein as to be injurious to the health of the persons employed therein, and every such factory, manufacturing establishment or workshop shall be well and sufficiently lighted and ventilated in such a manner as to render harmless, as far as practicable, all the gases, vapors, dust or other impurities generated in the course of the manufacturing process or handicraft carried on therein, which may be injurious to health.

Section 2. *And be it enacted*, That if any person, firm or corporation, managing or conducting any factory, manufacturing establishment, or workshop in this State, shall neglect any of the requirements of this Act, or do or permit to be done in the factory, manufacturing establishment, or workshop conducted or managed by him, them, or it, any act contrary to the provisions of this Act, he, she, they or it shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, upon conviction thereof in a court of competent jurisdiction, be fined one hundred and fifty dollars for each offence so committed.*

Approved April 8th, 1884.

FACTORIES.

[*Hours of Labor—Minors.*]

ACTS 1876, CHAPTER 125.

SECTION 1. No child under the age of sixteen years shall be employed in laboring by any person, firm or corporation in any cotton, woolen or other manufacturing establishment in this State more than ten hours in any one day.

*This law, as it stands, is practically useless. It is a good law in substance, and covers the ground for the preservation of efficient sanitary conditions in factories and workshops, but it is lacking in the means to enforce its provisions. Employees will never be found willing to lay an information against an employer; (and as this law stands they are the only parties in a position to know the facts). To do so would simply mean the surrender of their situations, and practically their ability to procure work in any other establishment. A factory inspection is needed, with proper power and safeguards to make this Act effectual; and such an inspection would, in my judgment, be eminently beneficial to a very large number of workingmen and women in this State. Quoting from the report of the Board of Health for 1884, page 156: "Provision should be made for the better protection of the health of employees in workshops, manufactories, etc. Many of the establishments are unprovided with necessary and suitable conveniences."

Section 2. Any such person, firm or corporation, which shall employ any child under sixteen years of age, contrary to the provisions of the preceding section, and any superintendent, overseer or other agent of any such person, firm or corporation, and any parent or guardian of such minor, who permits such minor to work or be employed contrary to the provisions of the preceding section, shall for each offense be punished by a fine not exceeding fifty dollars for each and every case, to be recovered on complaint in any court of competent jurisdiction, and all prosecutions for offenses under this act shall be begun within one year from the commission thereof.

Section 3. No part of the two preceding sections shall apply to children engaged in agriculture, household or mercantile pursuits.*

[*Tobacco Warehouse.*]

ACTS 1872, CHAPTER 36.

Section 8. The hours of labor in the several tobacco warehouses in the City of Baltimore shall be from 7 o'clock A. M., until 12 o'clock M., and from 1 o'clock P. M., until 6 o'clock P. M.

[*Miners—Coal.*]

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 427.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* That the period of employment of workingmen employed in and about the mines of Alleghany and Garrett counties shall be ten hours per day, said hours to be computed from the time of beginning said day's labor; provided,

*I do not think there are many, certainly no flagrant, violations of this law, because the hours of labor constituting a day's work are ten; but there are very many young children, far below the age of sixteen, who work all the ten hours, working the same proportion of time as adults. Children whose ages range from ten years and upward are engaged in mining, needle-work, shoe trade, packing trade, stores—indeed, in all branches of industry. And while sixteen years may have been a reasonable limit at the time of the passage of this Act, we have very largely increased the number of children employed since that time. (See Chapter III., tables 1, 2, 3, pp. 32-33.)

that the time of beginning said day's labor shall be seven o'clock A. M.; provided, however, that nothing herein contained shall in any way interfere with any workman in and about said mines from working a greater number of hours should he so desire, and enter into contract with the owner or owners or manager of any said mines, such additional hours to be computed as overtime, and to be paid for.

Section 2. *And be it enacted*, That this act shall take effect from and after the date of its passage.*

Approved April 8th, 1884.

LABOR.

[*Forty-eighth Congress United States, Session 1884-85—Foreign Contract, February 26th, 1885.*]

CHAPTER 164.

AN ACT to prohibit the importation and migration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labor in the United States, its territories, and the District of Columbia.

*As a comment on this Act, I cannot do better than quote the expressions of some of the correspondents of this office, who, having a practical experience, write concerning it as follows—

1. "The law as it now stands is a dead letter, there being no penalty attached. The operators do not regard it as a law. We would prefer that ten hours should be all, and that the privilege of contract should be stricken out, and a fine of \$500 inserted instead. Capital always gets a good weight at the end of these laws. The law as it now stands is no benefit."

2. "It has not been any good to the miners in this region, for the companies give us hours to work by. It might have been some good if that amendment had not been put to it. Ten hours are long enough for any man to work under ground. All hands in this region work from 6 o'clock to 6 o'clock, having one hour for dinner, during the summer season; and from the 15th of October to the 15th of the next March we work from 6½ to 5½ o'clock, including one hour for dinner; and that has been the way we have been working for the last few years."

3. "The law in itself is good, but ever since its passage it has been ruled out in our region, for as soon as the law was passed the operators gave notice that from March 15th to the 15th of October, the hour would be from 7 A. M. to 6 P. M., for winter; and from 6 A. M. to 6 P. M., for summer. So I consider the law was no benefit for the people it was intended for. Regarding the hours of labor, the same amount of coal can be produced in eight hours, as is produced now in eleven, providing the operators would put in stock to bring it out to the surface; and it would require very little additional work on the part of the miners."

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of this act it shall be unlawful for any person, company, partnership or corporation in any manner whatsoever, to prepay the transportation, or in any way assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien or aliens, any foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its territories, or the District of Columbia, under contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, made previous to the importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, to perform labor or service of any kind in the United States, its territories, or the District of Columbia.

Section 2. That all contracts or agreements, express or implied, parol or special, which may hereafter be made by and between any person, company, partnership, or corporation, and any foreigner or foreigners, alien or aliens, to perform labor or service, or having reference to the performance of labor or service, by any person in the United States, its territories or the District of Columbia, previous to the migration or importation of the person or persons whose labor or service is contracted for into the United States, shall be utterly void and of no effect.

Section 3. That for every violation of any of the provisions of section one of this act the person, partnership, company or corporation violating the same, by knowingly assisting, encouraging or soliciting the migration or importation of any alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its territories, or the District of Columbia, to perform labor or service of any kind under contract or agreement, express or implied, parol or special, with such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, previous to becoming residents or citizens of the United States, shall forfeit and pay for every such offense the sum of one thousand dollars, which may be sued for and recovered by the United States,

or by any person who shall first bring his action therefor, including any such alien or foreigner who may be a party to any such contract or agreement, as debts of like amount are now recovered in the circuit courts of the United States, the proceeds to be paid into the treasury of the United States; and separate suits may be brought for each alien or foreigner being a party to such contract or agreement aforesaid. And it shall be the duty of the district attorney of the proper district to prosecute every such suit at the expense of the United States.

Section 4. That the master of any vessel who shall knowingly bring within the United States on any such vessel, and land, or permit to be landed, from any foreign port or place, any alien laborer, mechanic, or artisan, who, previous to embarkation on such vessel, had entered into contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, to perform labor or service in the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not more than five hundred dollars for each and every such alien laborer, mechanic or artisan so brought as aforesaid, and may also be imprisoned for a term not exceeding six months.

Section 5. That nothing in this act shall be so construed as to prevent any citizen or subject of any foreign country temporarily residing in the United States, either in private or official capacity, from engaging, under contract or otherwise, persons not residents or citizens of the United States to act as private secretaries, servants or domestics for such foreigner temporarily residing in the United States as aforesaid; nor shall this act be so construed as to prevent any person or persons, partnership or corporation from engaging, under contract or agreement, skilled workmen in foreign countries to perform labor in the United States in or upon any new industry not at present established in the United States; provided, that skilled labor for that purpose cannot

be otherwise obtained; nor shall the provisions of this act apply to professional actors, artists, lecturers, or singers, nor to persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants: provided, that nothing in this act shall be construed as prohibiting any individual from assisting any member of his family, or any relative or personal friend, to migrate from any foreign country to the United States for the purpose of settlement here.

Section 6. That all laws or parts of laws conflicting herewith be, and the same are hereby, repealed.*

Approved, February 26, 1885.

*The following comments by Carroll D. Wright, of the National Labor Bureau, Washington, on this law, will be read with interest: "The Forty-eighth Congress, at the second session, enacted a law aimed at the restriction and prevention of the importation of foreign labor under contract. The effect of this law cannot be appreciated, if it has any effect, until the country reaches a period of prosperity, and those engaged in industrial enterprises, railroad-building, etc., seek to gain the greatest possible advantage during the season of prosperity. At the present time the law is practically inoperative, because no desire exists to break its provisions. There has been no widespread importation of labor under contract. The cases which have occurred have been local, and although accompanied by many aggravating features such importations have not involved industries as a whole. It is undoubtedly true that during the past fifty years immigration has been of inestimable value as an element in American industrial progress, but it cannot be said now, and probably not to any great extent in the future, that America is the home of the oppressed of all nations. This advertisement will undoubtedly be withdrawn, as well as that other, that there is room enough in the United States for all. This would not be so if this country was not one of the great family of nations now given to mechanical production. So long as it was largely an agricultural country the advertisement worked its good, for it brought wealth and labor and the wealth that comes of labor. Immigration in the future will continue to bring the same elements. The trouble comes in too rapid immigration. No one would probably consider for a moment the propriety of preventing immigration, but it is a subject for wise consideration whether or not it may not be regulated by equitable legal provisions. The present practice certainly results in the freest possible importation of labor, which profits by the prosperity of the country and aids materially in bringing about a condition where profits are not only reduced to a small margin, but labor finds its power to consume crippled. Many instances might be given to illustrate the ill effects of the inopportune importation of foreign labor; the employment of Hungarians in mining districts, the padrone system in some localities, and other features, not only of foreign contract labor, but of the employment of foreign labor which comes freely on a certain kind of solicitation to induce it. So far as the investigation in hand indicates, the employment of foreign labor under contract to take the places of dissatisfied home

MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 2.

SECTION 1. Repeals and re-enacts Section 1, Chapter 16, Laws 1872.

CHAPTER 16.

SECTION 1. The Mayor and City Council of Baltimore shall have full power and authority to establish in said city a system of free public schools, which shall include a school or schools for manual or industrial training, under such ordinances, rules and regulations as they may deem fit and proper to enact and prescribe; they may delegate supervisory powers and control to a Board of Public School Commissioners; may prescribe rules for building school houses and locating, establishing and closing schools, and may in general do every act that may be necessary or proper in the premises.

laborers has been a miserable failure for all parties concerned, except, perhaps, the parties imported. The contractor here has gained no advantage beyond a temporary one, and in a large proportion of cases has met with permanent disadvantage; the home laborer has been thrown out of employment or obliged to work on a crippled basis, and the consumer has not been able to secure products at any appreciable discount. To some extent the imported man has been benefited, for he has been able, by continuing his old style of living, to secure what were to him marvelous wages, and after saving a few hundred dollars felt that he could return to his old associations with a fund which, with little work, would enable him to live in comparative affluence. The conclusion is inevitable that the consuming power of many communities is crippled through rapid immigration, and whatever cripples communities in respect to their consuming capacity cripples all in any way affiliated with such communities. The decrease of the public domain suitable for farming purposes has probably had something to do in preventing immigration in recent years. If so, it may be expected, with farming land at a higher price than formerly, that immigration will not be abnormal in the future; that is, immigrants will not come to this country in such large numbers as to influence in any material degree the stability of our industries. About three-fifths of the public domain already has passed out of the ownership of the Government, while the remaining two-fifths embraces a very large proportion of desert and mountain lands, unfit for habitation. The reduction of the area of available public lands is, of course, only a contributory cause of the decrease of immigration, because, as has just been seen, the number of the foreign-born absorbed in the agricultural classes is only about two-thirds as large as that absorbed in mechanical industries. It is in this latter respect that the effects of immigration are felt. It is probable that this country could, with benefit to all its industries, absorb from 200,000 to 250,000 new-comers annually, but a much larger number coming in can be considered as one of the precursors of depressed business."

Section 2. *And be it enacted*, That this act shall take effect from the date of its passage.

Approved January 31st, 1884.

MINING SCHOOLS.

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 39.

AN ACT to establish a Mining School in the county of Alleghany, in connection with the public free school system of the State of Maryland.

SECTION 1. Provides for the opening of evening schools for the study of mining and mechanical knowledge.

Section. 2. Teachers to be provided from existing day schools by commissioners of county, pupils to be 14 years of age.

Section 3. Provides for appointment of one professor, as lecturer to schools.

Section 4. Written application of thirty persons to school trustees necessary before school can be opened.

Section 5. Subject of lectures to be: Mining and mechanics—different modes of ventilation and results—science of mining and mechanics—civil engineering and map drawing.

Section 6. Teachers' compensation fixed by school commissioners, to be paid out of public school fund of Alleghany county.

Section 7. Schools to open first Monday in November, and close last Friday in April.

Section 8. Not more than three thousand dollars per annum to be spent, and if not sufficient funds in hands of commissioners, provides for tax levy.

Section 9. *Be it enacted*, That this act shall take effect from and after the date of its passage.*

Approved March 4th, 1884.

* An article which appeared in the issue of the *Baltimore Sun* for December 17th, 1885, so fully explains the popular sentiment, and I believe, the opinions of thoughtful mechanics in regard to the Manual Training School of Baltimore, that I take the liberty of inserting it here as a foot note to the act: "There ought

MECHANICS' LIENS.

[Code Public General Laws.]

ARTICLE 61.

SECTION 1. The laws of Maryland make every building erected, repaired, rebuilt or improved, to the extent of one-fourth its value, the subject of a lien for the payment of all debts contracted for work done or materials furnished for or about the same.

Section 2. In all cases in which a building shall be commenced and not finished the lien shall attach thereto to the extent of the work done or materials furnished.

Section 9. Where the building is erected by a lessee, or tenant for life or years, of lands; or architect, builder or other person employed by the lessee or tenant, the lien applies only to the extent of the interest of such lessee or tenant.

to have been no doubt as to what the Manual Training School was intended to do. In the higher classes of the grammar schools and in the City College, education fitted to develop the general powers of the mind was supplemented by courses of instruction which were specially adapted to the wants of those boys who were looking forward to becoming clerks, book-keepers, tradesmen, teachers, or practitioners of the learned professions. There was no place in the public school system, however, in which a boy, who wanted to make himself a skilled mechanic or a capable engineer, could acquire that peculiar sort of training which would be of most use to him in after life. Formerly it was supposed that a knowledge of the 'three R's' was all a mechanic needed, and not a few worthy people were firmly of opinion that one who had any greater amount of book-learning could not drive a nail straight. But in our day machinery has been so developed, science has found out so many ways of bringing the forces of nature into the service of man's practical wants, that the men who are actually to do or superintend the doing of the upper grades of manual labor, to be most useful to themselves and the community, must be carefully and scientifically trained, both in the theory and the practice of the mechanic arts as they now exist among us. No school in which the theoretical and the practical teaching were combined formed a part of our scheme of public education. The results were many, and all to be regretted. In the first place there was growing up an increasing separation between the hands and the head in many or all of our more important and more difficult handicrafts, to the detriment alike of the industrial and of the social progress of the community. Where a combination of both practical and theoretical knowledge was absolutely indispensable, it not unfrequently happened that it could be procured only by bringing from other States, or from abroad, men who had been educated in manual training or technical schools. Worst, perhaps, of all, the notion grew up, and is still far too widely entertained, that a boy who had anything above the

Sections 10, 11. Notice in writing of the intention to claim the lien must be given within sixty days from time of doing work or furnishing materials to the owners of the land; if the building is erected on land belonging to some other person than the architect or builder, or if it belong to a married woman, and if, because of absence of parties or other cause such notice cannot be served, it may, in the presence of a witness, be affixed to the door of the tenement.

Section 14. Any person furnishing work or materials, or both, and complying with the provisions of the law, is entitled to the lien.

merest rudiments of an education should earn his bread in some other way than by actual mechanical labor. As a result of this delusion, there will be hundreds of applicants for a clerk's place at a salary which would be declined with scorn by most even fairly-skilled mechanics. To bring about a reform, the School Board, with the assent of the City Council and the State Legislature, and with the approval of the general public, determined to set up a manual training school. The object of the institution was to train boys in the mechanic arts. Its curriculum was to be so arranged that all the faculties of its pupils which would contribute to make them good mechanics should be developed and trained. Everything else was foreign to the purposes of the school. The public has, therefore, been puzzled to know why military drill was made a part of the course of instruction. A knowledge of the manual of arms will not teach a boy to handle his own in a way to make higher wages at the workbench. He may be thoroughly trained in the school of the company, and be not a whit better equipped to rise in the school of practical life. Not a few parents have conscientious scruples against their sons taking part in military drills. A great many others, and with them the public agreed, felt that the incorporation of such an incongruous feature in the course of instruction at the school indicated, upon the part of the committee in charge, such a confused idea of the object of the institution that it was not at all likely to do any good. If it had been part of a general policy of the State, adopted deliberately and after full discussion of all that could be said for or against, and made applicable to all public schools in which larger boys were taught, some defense of it might have been made. But the country is well equipped with military schools and with the means of instantly forming armies in emergency. No such general policy as to our schools, therefore, is either necessary or desirable, and why the manual training school should be singled out to be saddled with the 'military' superfluity passes ordinary comprehension. In truth, that school was the last in which the experiment should have been tried. As well might it be introduced into the Maryland Institute Schools of Art and Design. As yet a new thing, the Manual Training School would require all the time, attention and talent of the committee, teachers and scholars, to overcome the practical difficulties inseparable from the starting of a new enterprise. The main object should alone have been kept in view. Nothing should have been wasted, even on matters incidental and collateral, much less upon things such as the military drill, which is entirely foreign to its whole purpose."

Section 20. Where a contractor or builder secures the lien, the workman to whom he is indebted may secure his claim by petition.

Section 22. Every machine, wharf and bridge erected, constructed or repaired within the State is subject to a lien in like manner as buildings are subject.

Section 23. The limit of time for claiming the lien is six months from the time work was done or materials furnished.

Section 44. All boats or vessels whatever belonging in the State are subject to a lien, and bound for the payment thereof, as preferred debts, for all debts due to boatbuilders, mechanics, merchants, farmers or other persons, from the owners, masters or captains, or other agents of such boats or vessels, for materials or work done in the building, repairing or equipping the same.

Section 45. Six months is the limit within which to file the claim.

Section 47. Every boat or vessel against which an account is filed under the law is subject to a lien for the debts and costs for two years from the date of filing the statement and no longer.

TRADE UNION.

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 267.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* That any five or more persons, citizens of the United States, a majority of whom are citizens of this State, who are engaged in the same occupation or employment, or in similar occupation or employment, may organize and form as a corporation, to be known as a "Trade Union," with such additions to the said name as they may adopt and set forth in their certificate, to promote the well being of their every day life, and for mutual assistance in securing the most favorable conditions for the labor of its members; and as a beneficial society, under the provision of Article twenty-six

of the Code of Public General Laws of this State, as the same was enacted by the act of eighteen hundred and sixty-eight, Chapter four hundred and seventy-one and its supplements, in the manner in which other corporations provided for in said act are authorized to be formed; each of said trade unions so organized and formed as a corporation, shall possess all the powers and be subject to all the regulations in said act, and in its supplements contained, affecting beneficial societies or associations authorized to be incorporated under the provisions of said act and its supplements.*

Approved April 8th, 1884.

WOMEN (EMPLOYMENT OF).

[*In Theatres—Revised Code, Article 72, page 812.*]

Section 127. It shall not be lawful for any proprietor, lessee or manager of any theatre, museum or other place of amusement to employ women or girls as waiters, or to permit them to act in such theatre or place of amusement, or among the audience or frequenters of such theatre or place of amusement as waiters, or for the purpose, or under the pretence, of selling, serving, receiving orders, or pay for spirituous or malt liquors, wines, lager beer, or any other refreshments or merchandise.

* "Although on its face this act does not appear very beneficial to the labor of the State, yet I believe it is destined, in its results, to produce more practical good to the workman than any bill passed in the interest of labor by the Maryland Legislature. It not only gives the 'trade union' a standing which it never enjoyed before, and lifts it up out of the mire of popular contempt and covers the workman with the protecting mantle of the law, but it makes such 'trade unions' responsible bodies and encourages them to occupy a place among the manufacturing forces of the State. I believe that when this is more properly realized by the practical trade unionist, that many enterprises will be undertaken by the working people, united as corporations, and that they have the opportunity, under the provisions of this act, to become in time their own employers. Already that result has been partially realized, and if the system could be enlarged, or rather when it is, very many 'labor reforms' now agitated will not be regarded as necessary. Every law in this direction produces practical results, and wisely concceived and simply executed (as this act was) is a benefit to the industry of the State."

Section 128. Any person violating the provisions of the last preceding section shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof in the Criminal Court of Baltimore City, or the Circuit Court of Baltimore county, in which the offence was committed, shall be sentenced to pay a fine of not less than one hundred, nor more than one thousand dollars, or to imprisonment in jail not less than one month, nor more than six months, or by both fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the court, and by forfeiture of license; one-half the fine to be paid to the informer, and the other half to the State.

[*Female Employees—to Protect Health of.*]

ACTS 1882, CHAPTER 35.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* That it shall be the duty of all employers of females in any mercantile or manufacturing business or occupation in the City of Baltimore, to provide and maintain suitable seats for the use of such female employees, and to permit the use of such seats by such employees to such an extent as may be reasonable for the preservation of their health.

Section 2. *Be it enacted,* That any violation of this act by any employer shall be deemed a misdemeanor, and shall be punishable by a fine of one hundred and fifty dollars, to be collected as other fines are collected.*

Approved February 15th, 1882.

[*Miners' Wages.*]

ACTS 1880, CHAPTER 273.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland,* That every corporation engaged in mining or manufacturing, or operating a railroad in Alleghany county, and

* In regard to this law, it is simply a fact, that it is constantly, systematically and knowingly violated, but like the factory nuisance act before referred to, no saleslady could be found willing to say so publicly, and the consequence is that the provisions of the law are never enforced.

employing ten or more hands, shall pay its employees the full amount of their wages in legal-tender money of the United States; and that any contract by or on behalf of any such corporation for the payment of the whole or any part of such wages in any other manner than herein provided, shall be null and void; and that every such employee shall be entitled to recover from any such corporation employing him the whole or so much of the wages earned by him as shall not have been actually paid to him in legal tender money of the United States, without set-off or deduction of his demand for or in respect of any account or claim whatever.

Section 2. *Be it further enacted*, That nothing in this act shall be construed to prevent any such corporation from devising to any of its employees the whole or any part of any tenement in said county of any rent thereon reserved, or from contracting for or advancing money to supply him with medicine or medical attendance needed for himself or family, or smithing or fuel, and deducting from the wages of any such employee for and in respect of such rent, medicine, medical attendance, smithing or fuel, or money advanced as aforesaid.

Section 3. *Be it further enacted*, That nothing in this act contained shall be construed to prevent the payment, in whole or in part, of the wages of any such employee in the notes of any bank payable to the bearer on demand that shall be current at par in this State at the time of such payment, but all payments made in such notes with consent of such employees shall be as valid and effectual as if made in legal tender money of the United States.

Section 4. *Be it further enacted*, That any corporation before mentioned, which shall directly or indirectly enter into any contract, or make any payment hereby declared illegal, shall be liable to indictment, and upon conviction thereof in any court of competent jurisdiction, shall, for the first

offense, be fined one hundred dollars, and for each succeeding offense not less than five hundred dollars nor more than one thousand dollars.

Section 5. *Be it further enacted*, That this act shall take effect from and after the date of its passage.

Approved April 10th, 1880.

WAGES AND SALARIES.

[*Insolvent Law.*]

ACTS 1884, CHAPTER 295.

Section 13. Authorizes an insolvent debtor, or one contemplating insolvency, to prefer the wages or salaries of clerks, servants and employees, contracted within three months prior to execution of such preference; provided the grantor is proceeded against or applies for the benefit of the act, and becomes an insolvent within 60 days thereafter.

During the session of the Maryland Legislature of 1886 acts were passed reducing the time of labor for street car employees to 12 hours per day; also, prohibiting the distribution of ice, and consequent employment of ice cart men, on Sunday.

APPENDIX.

DISTRIBUTIVE CO-OPERATION.

PREPARED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE PROVISIONS OF CHAP.
51, OF THE RESOLVES OF 1885.

BY CARROLL D. WRIGHT,
CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR,
OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

ACTS AND RESOLVES OF 1885.

RESOLVES, CHAPTER 51.

RESOLVE PROVIDING FOR THE PUBLICATION BY THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR OF INFORMATION CONCERNING CO-OPERATIVE DISTRIBUTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

Resolved, That the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor be, and he is, hereby instructed to prepare and publish for distribution a pamphlet descriptive of the history, methods and present condition of co-operative distribution in Great Britain; and he may expend in the preparation and publication of the same a sum not exceeding eighteen hundred dollars.

[Approved May 12th, 1885.]

[The valuable services of Mr. Horace G. Wadlin, in the collection of material for, and preparation of, the following manual are gratefully acknowledged.]

DISTRIBUTIVE CO-OPERATION.

The following pages present a condensed account of the position of productive co-operation in Great Britain, and of productive and distributive co-operation upon the European continent and in Australia.

For the material from which the account of continental and Australian co-operation was prepared, the Bureau is mainly indebted to the report of a committee upon that subject to the Seventeenth Annual Co-operative Congress, held at Oldham, England, in May, 1885, the authorities upon which said report was based being noted in connection with each country respectively. The matter is of interest in considering the general subject of co-operation, and is of sufficient importance to warrant its presentation here.

As the record of a successful American experiment in distributive co-operation, upon a plan similar to that instituted at Rochdale, may be of value to others proposing to enter the field, we have also included an account of the Arlington Co-operative Association, at Lawrence, Massachusetts.

NOTE.—Owing to the kindness of the Hon. Carroll D. Wright, Chief of the Massachusetts Labor Bureau, who supplied this office with advance copies of his Report on Co-operation, the preparation of which was made by virtue of the foregoing resolution and appropriation of the Massachusetts Legislature, I am here enabled to submit the Appendix of the same to the General Assembly of this State.

—THOMAS C. WEEKS,

Chief of Maryland Bureau.

CO-OPERATIVE PRODUCTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The theorists, who have devoted their lives to the advancement of co-operative principles, will never rest satisfied with its application merely to the business of buying and selling commodities, however admirable the results may appear. To them the whole structure of co-operative distribution is but the foundation of a far nobler edifice. To utilize in production the capital saved in co-operative stores, so as gradually to remove competition in industry, is the end they hope finally to reach. Meantime their efforts are devoted to arouse the workingmen who are attached to the distributive societies to a deeper sense of the benefits of a co-operative system which would include production as well as distribution, and to overcome the indifference to other motives than those of immediate personal and pecuniary gain.

It is unfortunate that there seems to be no well-matured plan commanding itself to general acceptance upon which co-operative production can go forward. Two distinct schools exist: the individualists and the federalists. The first hold that individual bodies of workingmen should start for themselves in productive enterprises, obtaining their capital either from their own savings or by loan. The business should then be conducted independently of the distributive societies, and managed by the workingmen immediately interested, who may, if necessary, go into the open market and secure trade by superior energy or on account of the high quality of their product. The federalists, on the other hand, believe that the federated stores should provide the basis for productive effort; the capital saved in the stores should be used; the demand of the stores should supply the necessary market, and the management should be by committee, precisely as the wholesale societies are managed. Either individual societies might begin by manufacturing goods to

supply their local needs, or, as would seem more feasible, the wholesale societies, possessing a wider market, and able by their experience accurately to gauge production to demand, might proceed upon the plan already adopted in the Leicester Shoe Works.

The individualist would permit individual shareholders; the federalist would not, believing such permission dangerous as tending to joint-stockism. Strict adherence to the federalist system, as usually presented, would exclude the worker from participation in profits, except in his function as *consumer* as a member of some store having capital invested in the works, and except as a bonus or gratuity might be given him for superior work or extraordinary skill. In the works at present conducted by the English wholesale society upon substantially this plan, the workers, as workers, do not share in profits at all.

The difficulties attending both systems, as well as their advantages, are apparent. If the workers provide their own capital and divide the profits among themselves, not alone in proportion to capital, but also in proportion to work done, the concern would be strictly co-operative, but its success would largely depend upon the fidelity and talent of the managers, requisite qualities not easily procured, and upon the possibility of securing a permanent and remunerative market. To obtain the latter would involve keen competition with private concerns already well established, or, if several co-operative societies were seeking a market for the same product, keen competition with each other. There is also the difficulty, by no means small, of securing the required capital. The risk is very great, and workingmen are poorly equipped to encounter it.

If, to overcome the difficulty as to capital, outside stockholders are admitted, the enterprise loses its strictly co-operative character, jealousy is likely to arise between workers

and shareholders (capitalists), and the latter may at any time secure control and the concern become a purely joint stock company.

If, on the other system, the federated societies provide, as they may, both capital and market, the two great difficulties in the way of co-operative production may be overcome; over-production may be guarded against; more or less capital may be utilized as occasion demands, and, practically, loss may be prevented.

But if profits are to be divided among consumers only, that is, if profits are to go to the stores which furnish the capital, and are then disseminated in the form of dividends on purchases to the patrons of the stores, the workers, as such, acquire no benefit not obtainable in private employment. The scheme is, after all, so far as the workers are concerned, not co-operative.

Some federalists advocate a bonus or share in profits to labor. In both schools many shades of individual opinion appear. Mr. Holyoake, for instance, ably advocates the participation of labor, capital, and custom (consumers) in profits; remunerating capital by a fixed rate of interest, and dividing the remainder between laborers and consumers, always providing that labor shall have an adequate self-protecting representation upon the directory. Such a plan, he believes, can only be adjusted and maintained by the system of federation, while at the same time he is for individualism, in the sense of securing the local capacity, the personal interest and energy of the three parties—laborer, capitalist, and consumer, who it appears to him make up the force of co-operation.

Radically opposed to the theory of the consumer's right to share in the profits of production, Mr. J. M. Ludlow, the Registrar of Industrial and Friendly societies, an individualist, would have production carried on by independent unions of workers, for whom primarily the profits should be reserved.

Dr. John Watts, however, an eminent federalist, rejects any plan of individual action, as tending to relapse into competition, and would divide the profits arising in federated production among the societies furnishing the capital in proportion to the capital furnished by each, and afterward to their members as dividends on purchases. This scheme, as pointed out by Messrs. Hughes and Neale, must undoubtedly cause the largest share of profits to go to the richer classes, they being the largest buyers; is essentially a division of profits on capital (joint-stockism); and entirely overlooks the worker as such. "The notion of so carrying on work that the worker may get the full benefit of his labor, after providing for the cost of capital, is replaced by that of so carrying it on that the consumers, whether producers or not, should get the greatest possible benefit out of it."*

Mr. Neale, while adhering to the federative scheme, as diminishing the risk that must inevitably accompany individual action, believes that in any system of co-operative production the worker should acquire the profits, after the remuneration of capital by payment of interest, and that the consumer ought not to share in the profits of production. He believes further—

"That it is quite practicable to carry on production in close connection with a distributive centre, under conditions which will prevent any competitive conflict among the producers, without withdrawing from the workers any of the advantages derivable from their work."†

He has also clearly shown, enforcing his argument by the significant statistics of the extensive Leicester Shoe Works, and of the spinning companies at Oldham, that "Large as the total proceeds of any work may be—vast as may be the establishments where the production is carried on—imposing as the

* Manual for Co-operators (published by the Central Co-operative Board), page 153.

† Manual for Co-operators, page 139.

result may appear when the net profits of such great works are concentrated in the hands of a few persons—these profits, when divided among the host of workers engaged in producing them, will make but a small addition to the sum that those workers would earn. Naturally, if they are to be further diluted by division among the large body of persons who may have made purchases, the benefit must be proportionately diminished.” *

And he goes on to suggest that the collective income, instead of being frittered away in minute dividends to each worker, might by agreement be employed in associated action to create better conditions of life, such, for example, as private employers, like Sir Titus Salt, have attempted to confer upon their workpeople, or such as have been secured through the associated homes projected by M. Godin, at Guise.

While these various theories prevail, little has actually been done. Disregarding all such concerns as the spinning companies at Oldham, which, though frequently termed co-operative, are absolutely joint stock companies, dividing profits on stock, held at present by workers chiefly, but liable at any time to change ownership, and, in any event, no different in principle or administration from the ordinary joint stock corporation,—there are a few productive societies in Great Britain that permit workers, as workers, to share in profits, and are managed by the workers themselves. Many of these have share capital also, to which part of the profits go, and some admit customers to participation in the dividend. The following table exhibits these societies at the beginning of 1884—

* Seventeenth Annual Co-operative Congress: preface to Report, page iv.

DISTRIBUTIVE CO-OPERATION.

NAME.	BUSINESS.	Date estab-lished.	Yearly sales.	Yearly profits.	METHOD OF DIVIDING PROFITS.
Arnold Manufacturing.....	Hosiers.....	1868	£ 200	£ ..	Between shareholders and workers.
Airedale Manufacturing.....	Alpacas, cords, etc.....	1872	5,799	427	Between shareholders, customers, and workers.
Cobden Mills.....	Calicoes	1867	52,264	..	Between shareholders and workers.
Co-operative Printers.....	Watches.....	1876	2,623	278	Between shareholders, customers, and workers.
Dudley Nailmakers.....	Printers and stationers.....	1869	33,589	2,789	Between shareholders and workers.
Dunfermline Manufacturing.....	Nailmakers.....	1874	1,212	83	Between shareholders and workers.
Eccles Manufacturing.....	Damask table linen.....	1872	1,672	67	Between shareholders and workers.
Edinburg Printers.....	Quilts and toilet covers.....	1861	9,767	1,058	No details.
Framenakers and Gilders, London.....	Printers and stationers.....	1873	3,027	236	Between shareholders and workers.
Hebden Bridge Manufacturing.....	Carvers, gilders and general decorators.....	1858	6,359	...	No details.
Howley Park Quarry.....	Fustian cutters, etc.....	1870	22,103	1,980	Between shareholders and workers.
Lancashire and Yorkshire Productive Leek Silk Twist Manufacturing.....	Stoneworkers.....	1872	3,624	500	No details.
Leicester Manufacturing.....	Flannelers.....	1873	16,396	43	Between shareholders & customers.
Leicester Elastic Web.....	Silk-thread.....	1874	2,688	2	No details.
Sheepshed Manufacturing.....	Hosiery.....	1876	6,273	133	Between shareholders, customers, and workers.
Sheffield Cutlery Manufacturing.....	Web weavers.....	1878	4,463	129	No details.
Sheffield Haft and Scale Cutting.....	Hosiery.....	1881	92	...	Between shareholders and workers.
Paisley Manufacturing.....	Knives and scissors.....	1873	439	69	No details.
Northamptonshire Productive.....	Haft makers.....	1876	3,906	125	No details.
Walsall Manufacturing.....	Riads, shawls, etc.....	1861	11,891	568	Between shareholders, customers, and workers.
	Bootmakers.....	1881	1,662	128	Between shareholders and workers.
	Lockmakers.....	1874	3,986	...	No details.

The foregoing table is extracted from "Workingmen Co-operators," page 103. The same work is also our authority for the statement, attributed to a leading co-operator, that 224 co-operative productive societies registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act have been dissolved. Of these, 156 were small joint stock companies with no co-operative element in them; 44 divided profits between capitalists and customers; and 24 between capitalists, customers, and workers.

The Registrar's returns for the year ending December 3, 1883, exhibit 34 so-called productive societies in England and Wales, and 4 in Scotland. But of these, 14 were corn (flour) mills, in which it is not usual to admit workers to share in profits, and two were agricultural.

This brief record appears to be all that co-operative production has at present to exhibit in Great Britain.

CO-OPERATION IN FRANCE.*

The social hopes fostered in France by the political revolution of 1848 were partly realized in the formation of large numbers of co-operative societies. The enthusiasm of the moment and the influence of government patronage stimulated the movement, but few possessed sufficient vitality to long survive. The re-establishment of the empire in 1852 was an event at first decidedly unfavorable to their progress, but in 1864 co-operation at Paris once more revived, and later was assisted by favorable legislation. In 1870, 20 workingmen's co-operative societies engaged in production existed at Paris, and at present there are more than 70 such societies. Outside of Paris few such societies exist.

The following details are tabulated from statistics published by the Bureau des Associations Professionnelles—

* Authorities: M. Nicole, of the Consolidated Chamber of the Workingmen's Productive Association of the Department of the Seine. Evidence before a Parliamentary Commission. Report of the Bureau des Associations Professionnelles.

TABULATED STATISTICS
OF THE
Co-operative Societies of France,
PUBLISHED BY THE
BUREAU DES ASSOCIATIONS PROFESSIONNELLES.

The Co-operative

NAME OF THE ASSOCIATION.

	French.	English.
1	Appareils à gaz (Ouvriers fabricants d')	Working gas apparatus } makers.....
2	Arçonniers ferreurs.....	Saddle bow binders.....
3	Bâtimenit (Société générale du).....	Builders.....
4	Bijoutiers en doré (Association des).....	Different kinds of jewelers
5	Bijoutiers en double (Association des).....	
6	Bijoutiers-joailliers (Association des).....	
7	Chapeliers (Association générale ouv- rières).....	Working hat-makers.....
8	Charrons (Association collective des).....	Wheelwrights
9	Charpentiers de la Seine (Association des).....	
10	Charpentiers de la Villette (Associa- tion des).....	Working carpenters.....
11	Cimentiers (Association générale des ouvriers).....	
12	Cimentiers (Société des ouvriers ré- unis).....	Working cement-makers..
13	Cochers (La nouvelle Association des).....	
14	Cochers (L'Espérance, Association des).....	
15	Cochers (Association des).....	
16	Cochers (L'union des).....	
17	Cochers (L'Alliance, Association des).....	
18	Cochers (La Parisienne Association des).....	Coachmen or cab-drivers.
19	Cochers (La Moderne, Association des).....	
20	Cochers La Montrougeenne, Associa- tion des).....	
21	Cochers (Le Progrès, Association des).....	
22	Couvreurs, plombiers, zingueurs.....	Slaters, plumbers and } zinc workers.....
23	Ébénistes (L'Avenir, Association des).....	
24	Ébénisterie Parisienne (L').....	
25	Ébénisterie (Association de l').....	
26	Ébénistes (Société générale française d'ameublement).....	Cabinet-makers.....
27	Ébénisterie (Association syndic des).....	
28	Facteurs d'anches.....	Reed-makers.....
29	Facteurs de pianos (Association des).....	
30	Facteurs de pianos (L'Union Associa- tion des).....	Pianoforte-makers
31	Facteurs d'instruments de musique.....	Musical instrument-ma- kers.....
32	Ferblantiers, lanternes, compteurs.....	Tinworkers, lantern and } metre-makers.....
33	Ferblantiers-boitiers (Association des).....	Tin boxmakers.....
34	Formiets (Association des).....	Modelmakers
35	Horologers (Société anonyme des).....	Watchmakers.....

DISTRIBUTIVE CO-OPERATION.

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Societies of Paris.

Date of Formation.	CAPITAL.		Number of Associates.	WHETHER AUXILIARIES SHARE IN DEPOSITS.		Value of Work Done.
	Subscribed.	Paid up.		No.	Yes.	
	£	s.		£	s.	
—	—	—	15	—	—	—
July 1, 1881	180	0	140	0	7	No. — 3,400 0 2
Jan. 24, 1882	20,000	0	5,000	0	191	No. — 8,000 0 3
Dec. 26, 1882	816	0	700	0	12	— Yes. 4,480 0 4
January, 1882	1,000	0	1,000	0	160	No. — 1,440 0 5
July 27, 1882	1,800	0	840	0	26	No. — — 6 6
Dec. 12, 1883	400	0	280	0	88	— Yes. 640 0 7
Oct. 26, 1883	400	0	162	17	23	No. — 1,626 16 8
Feb. 18, 1881	606	0	491	16	40	No. — 24,000 0 9
Nov. 21, 1881	3,200	0	3,200	0	183	No. — 40,000 0 10
Aug. 22, 1881	240	0	282	0	17	No. — 16,280 0 11
Sep. 25, 1884	320	0	320	0	11	No. — 1,200 0 12
Mar. 21, 1883	1,760	0	1,080	0	73	No. — 16,000 0 13
Feb'y 9, 1884	3,280	0	2,765	19	41	— Yes. 16,457 8 14
Dec. 9, 1874	24,000	0	18,504	10	102	No. — 120,000 0 15
Dec. 1, 1873	14,200	0	14,200	0	129	— Yes. — 16
Feb. 12, 1882	6,080	0	10,000	0	105	No. — — 17
Oct'r 1, 1879	6,880	0	5,600	0	43	No. — — 18
Oct'r 1, 1881	8,640	0	7,800	0	54	No. — — 19
Nov'r 30, 1881	9,600	0	7,726	0	60	— Yes. — 20
Mar. 21, 1883	1,760	0	880	0	73	No. — — 21
Aug. 27, 1883	800	0	720	0	27	— Yes. 6,000 0 22
Aug. 24, 1879	1,020	0	740	0	48	No. — 20,000 0 23
Nov. 30, 1881	2,800	0	1,400	0	130	— — 2,800 0 24
Juue 30, 1884	760	0	240	0	19	— Yes. — 25
April 14, 1884	320	0	180	0	10	— Yes. 4,400 0 26
July 24, 1884	320	0	320	0	125	— — 7,000 0 27
Dec'r 1, 1865	700	0	80	0	7	No. — 40,000 0 28
1849	10,448	0	10,448	0	18	No. — 240,000 0 29
April 15, 1882	540	0	625	11	6	— — 6,400 0 30
1865	7,760	0	6,520	0	17	No. — 92,000 0 31
July, 1868	8,480	0	6,000	0	106	No. — 140,000 0 32
March, 1875	3,680	0	2,800	0	39	— — 160,000 0 33
Nov'r 17, 1849	2,320	0	1,545	14	12	No. — 102,000 0 34
Aug. 8, 1882	640	0	393	12	20	No. — — 3,240 0 35

The Co-operative

NAME OF THE ASSOCIATION.

	French.	English.
36	Imprimerie nouvelle (Association de l').	Printers.....
37	Jardiniers (Association co-opérative des)	Gardeners.....
38	Joailliers bijoutiers à façon.....	Jewelers.....
39	<i>Journal Officiel</i> (Association co-opéra- tion du).....	Newspaper publishers.....
40	Limes (Association des ouvriers en)....	Working filemakers.....
41	Lithographes de Paris (Association des)	Parisian lithographers....
42	Lunetiers (Société des).....	Spectaclemakers.....
43	Maçons et tailleurs de Pierre (L'union des ouvriers).....	Working masons and stonecutters.....
44	Menuisiers et bâtiments.....	Different kinds of joiners.
45	Menuisiers d'art et bâtiments.....	
46	Menuisiers en sièges.....	
47	Menuisiers en voitures.....	
48	<i>Moniteur des Syndicats ouvriers</i>	Trades' Union newspaper.
49	Opticiens (Association général des ouvriers).....	Working opticians.....
50	Orfèvrerie (Association ouvrière d')....	Working goldsmiths.....
51	Papetiers régleurs (Association des)...	Ruled papermakers.....
52	Parqueteurs (Société co-opérative des).....	
53	Parqueteurs (Association d'ouvriers).....	
54	Parqueteurs (Association Parisienne des).....	Inlaid floormakers.....
55	Passementiers (Association des ouv- riers).....	Working lacemakers.....
56	Paveurs (Association générale d'ouv- riers).....	Working pavers.....
57	Paveurs (Association de).....	
58	Peintres en bâtiment (Travail des)...	
59	Peintres en bâtiment (L'union des)...	House painters.....
60	Peintres de Paris (La Sécurité de)....	
61	Restaurateurs (Société co-opérative des)	Co-operative restaurant...
62	Sacs de dames et de voyage.....	Makers of ladies' and travelers' bags.....
63	Sculpteurs de Paris (L'union des)....	
64	Sculpture (Association co-opérative de la).....	Sculptors.....
65	Sellerie Parisienne (Association de la).	Saddlers.....
66	Serrurieurs en meubles.....	Furniture locksmiths.....
67	Tailleurs (Association générale des)...	Tailors.....
68	Tailleurs de limes.....	Filecutters.....
69	Terrassiers de la Seine.....	Terrace makers.....
70	Tapissiers (Association d'ouvriers)....	Working upholsterers....
71	Typographes (Association la co-opéra- tion des).....	Typographers.....
72	Vanniers (Association co-opération des ouvriers).....	Working basketmakers...
73	Société co-opérative immobilière.....	Society for loans on realty
74	Société co-opérative (Construction des maisons ouvrières).....	Co-operative building so- ciety.....

Societies of Paris.—(CONCLUDED.)

Date of Formation.	CAPITAL.		Number of Assistants.	WHETHER AUXILIARIES SHARE IN DEPOSIT.		Value of Work Done.
	Subscribed.	Paid up.		No.	Yes.	
Nov'r 12, 1869	£ 8,000 0	£ 8,000 0	1,348	No.	—	£ 160,000 0 36
Mar. 16, 1881	600 0	312 0	30	—	Yes.	548 0 37
—	—	—	—	—	—	— 38
Feb'y 5, 1881	224 0	224 0	28	—	Yes.	88,000 0 39
Sept. 27, 1848	8,400 0	6,890 17	21	No.	—	194,640 0 40
March, 1866	20,000 0	20,000 0	250	—	—	120,360 0 41
August 6, 1849	89,000 0	53,262 10	112	No.	—	1,200,000 0 42
March, 1885	400 0	900 0	15	—	Yes.	— 43
Feb'y 21, 1884	420 0	245 7	7	—	Yes.	1,235 10 44
Mar. 27, 1884	240 0	240 0	12	—	Yes.	2,640 0 45
Nov'r 16, 1848	64 0	64 0	16	No.	—	306,911 4 46
—	—	—	—	—	—	— 47
Nov'r 4, 1882	1,000 0	600 0	39	—	—	1,240 0 48
Dec'r 25, 1864	4,800 0	2,860 0	5	No.	—	64,000 0 49
Sept. 21, 1881	2,000 0	1,060 0	116	No.	—	600 0 50
May 1, 1883	2,400 0	365 4	6	No.	—	1,600 0 51
Oct'r 22, 1881	200 0	192 4	12	No.	—	13,374 6 52
Dec'r 3, 1883	120 0	67 9	6	—	Yes.	4,000 0 53
Aug. 7, 1884	120 0	24 0	9	—	—	7,000 0 54
Dec'r 16, 1884	600 0	84 0	—	—	—	200 0 55
Feb'y 11, 1883	6,440 0	660 0	—	No.	—	15,200 0 56
Feb. 17, 1883	1,440 0	1,460 0	—	No.	—	20,000 0 57
Dec'r 27, 1882	500 0	536 0	—	—	Yes.	11,200 0 58
May 7, 1883	516 0	579 16	13	—	Yes.	5,520 0 59
Feb'y 10, 1885	280 0	28 0	7	—	Yes.	— 60
—	—	—	—	—	—	— 61
—	980 0	440 0	10	—	Yes.	10,000 0 62
—	—	—	—	—	—	— 63
—	—	—	—	—	—	— 64
Feb'y 4, 1883	880 0	520 0	117	No.	—	8,000 0 65
Feb'y 19, 1850	120 0	120 0	5	—	Yes.	4,560 0 66
Oct'r 15, 1863	4,000 0	3,820 0	180	No.	—	200,000 0 67
Dec'r 24, 1868	540 0	540 0	6	—	Yes.	16,000 0 68
Jan. 1, 1885	80 0	8 0	6	—	—	— 69
Feb. 27, 1884	294 0	202 12	96	—	—	1,600 0 70
Dec. 26, 1881	400 0	360 0	24	—	—	4,185 2 71
Mar. 1, 1882	80 0	64 0	18	No.	—	1,080 0 72
Dec. 15, 1867	5,600 0	5,600 0	369	No	—	19,200 0 73
—	—	—	—	—	—	— 74

The total number of associates exhibited by the foregoing table is 4,920. These, with the auxiliaries employed, of whom the number does not appear, have done work amounting to £3,560,258 6s. The total paid up capital shown by the table is £223,315 18s.

These societies are usually administered by a council, acting through an executive officer, who is termed a delegate, administrator, director, or *gérant*. As might be expected, some difficulty is experienced in finding capable, active and devoted managers, and earnest and prudent councilmen. Calmness, moderation and perseverance, qualities essential to success, are often lacking among associates. But, nevertheless, the condition of the societies is in France considered promising, and the outlook is thought to be encouraging.

It will be noticed that in many cases auxiliaries do not share in profits. In such instances the organization would seem to be a form of co-operative partnership composed of workingmen, who share with each other profits in part derived from the labor of auxiliaries who do not share at all. When the profits are thus divided solely on the basis of shares held by the associates, the organization is merely that of a joint stock company, analogous to the Oldham mills. When the associates also share as workers an additional co-operative step is taken, and finally when, as in some of the societies, auxiliary workers are permitted to share in profits, the co-operative features become more complete.

The auxiliaries of the Carpenters' Association of La Villette are locksmiths, sawyers of planks and joiners. Instead of participating in profits they are paid a larger wage than that allowed by private employers. Provision is also made for an allowance to any auxiliary who is injured while at work, usually amounting to one-half the customary wage for the time the disability continues.

The auxiliaries employed by the Association of Working File Makers, although not allowed to share in profits, are

admitted as associates, without the payment of any fee, after six months' employment by the society. In other societies, notably the Association of Pianoforte Makers, a similar custom prevails.

Many societies have a fund for the care of superannuated members, for insurance in case of accident or death, etc. Most have certain conditions as prerequisites to membership, designed to secure the moral, physical, and industrial fitness of those who desire to join. Some require candidates to serve a period of probation before admission.

The mode of allotment of profits varies. In some societies a fixed rate of interest is paid to shareholders, and the balance, after providing for the maintenance of reserves, insurance and similar funds, if any, is divided among associate workers, or among associates and auxiliaries, as the case may be. Several societies, which permit auxiliaries to share, restrict the amount of profit out of which such share must be paid. For instance, in the General Society of French Cabinet Makers, auxiliaries participate in 25 per cent. of the profits, and the Society of Furniture Locksmiths permit auxiliaries to share in profits in the proportion of 10 per cent. on the proceeds of their work. Some societies divide all profits on the basis of work performed. The Association of File Cutters, in the divisions of profits, awards to capital 20 per cent. and to labor 80 per cent.

CO-OPERATION IN GERMANY.*

German co-operation has three modes of development, viz.: People's banks, consumers' societies, and trade societies. Of these the people's banks—a form of co-operative savings bank—are the most numerous, the trade societies ranking next. In 1883 the number of each class was as follows: People's banks, 1,910; trade societies, 1,031; consumers' societies, 676.

* Authority: Dr. Schneider, of Potsdam.

The trade societies so-called include two classes, industrial societies and agricultural societies. These may be more minutely classified as follows—

Industrial Societies.

Raw material supply.....	145
Magazines.....	59
Productive.....	149

Agricultural Societies.

Agricultural consumers' supply.....	305
Implement supply and stock raising.....	171
Productive agriculture.....	198

Total industrial societies, 353; total agricultural societies, 674; societies not included under the foregoing heads, 4; aggregate, 1,031.

The co-operative movement in Germany began with the raw material supply association founded by Schulze-Delitzsch, for the purpose of enabling handicraftsmen in different trades to purchase by wholesale the materials required in the prosecution of their industries, so as to allow them to compete with extensive manufacturers. The object of these societies was to uphold hand labor against the encroachments of factory industry, by thus obtaining for handworkers through association the advantages possessed by capitalists, and to deliver them from middlemen who furnished inferior material at high prices.

"Where the raw material societies have organized themselves according to the advice of Schulze-Delitzsch, and avoided the errors against which he over and over again warned them, they have accomplished this object to the benefit of the German handwork, and preserved to many German handicraftsmen their independent businesses. If we consider that, according to the trade statistics of 1882, there were in the shoemaking trade alone 245,118 independent handworkers who, in spite of the prophecies uttered more

than 20 years since by Ferdinand Lassalle and Karl Marx, still carry on the shoemaking business on their own account, and will not consent to be wage receivers, we cannot close our eyes to the fact that millions of Germans have the most pressing interest in the preservation of handicrafts.

* * * * *

"The raw material societies of the handworkers could have given greater help in this contest if several of them had not ruined themselves by grave mistakes, because, unfortunately, the bad custom of the handworker giving credit—sometimes long credit—to his customers, without any compensation, is widely spread in Germany. The workers often demanded of the raw material societies to sell to them on credit at the same price as if they paid ready money. Many societies have given way to this unjustifiable claim, and sunk under the consequent loss of capital and interest. Hence the number of raw material societies is not increasing."*

The 145 raw material societies included the following trades: Joiners and instrument makers, 21; spinners and weavers, 17; meal and bread producers, 14; printers and lithographers, 11; tailors, 10; brewers, 7; butchers, 7; carpenters and masons, 6; cigarmakers, 6; clock and watchmakers, distillers, metal workers and shoemakers, 5 each; machinists and sugar makers, 4 each; gilders and potters, 3 each; brush and combmakers, miners, personal services, and sewing machine makers, 2 each; bookbinders, glassmakers, plumbers and lacquerers, and starchmakers, 1 each.

The industrial magazines are co-operative commission concerns whose business it is to sell at a common magazine or depot the goods produced by their members. The larger number are engaged in the sale of carpenters and joiners' products.

The industrial productive societies are mainly confined to hand labor and to the smaller industries. A notable exception

* Dr. Schneider, of Potsdam.

is that of the largest German manufactory of chronometers, which is conducted on the co-operative plan. Co-operation when applied to factory labor in Germany has not been very successful.

"Productive societies formed for the purpose of selling their wares to the consumers' societies, and supplied with capital by them exist * * * only as exceptions. A society of this kind was the Berlin Bakers' Society, which long since came to grief through bad management. Most of the productive societies have been founded without any reference to the wants of the consumers' societies, by small groups of artisans or laborers, who were all to be at once employers and workers. The business of the society was their only source of income. If anything went wrong with their business, all the members came into difficulty. This may in many cases have bound all the members together and steeled their energies, but it tended also to make them indisposed to the admission of new associates, which naturally came into question only when the business was again going on prosperously. The members who had fought through the time of need alone, wished alone to reap the fruits of the good time. This was not associative, and was vigorously opposed by Schulze-Delitzsch, but it was natural, and explains the circumstance that in many old and successful productive societies the number of members is slowly diminishing. In some, though this is not publicly known, the number of members has shrunk to such an extent that they are no longer societies, but have become trading partnerships."*

The agricultural co-operative societies appear to be quite successful, and are increasing.

The agricultural consumers' supply societies afford their members facilities for purchasing in common, seeds, manures, etc., and secure to them the advantage of subjecting to chemical analysis goods offered to them for purchase, so as

* Dr. Schneider.

to test the genuineness of the articles. Others, existing among landowners, known as implement societies, provide agricultural machines, owned in common and loaned to members. Still others have for their object the improvement of breeds of cattle, and, finally, the productive agricultural societies are engaged in dairying and wine making.

There exists in Germany a co-operative union founded by Schulze-Delitzsch, and, since 1883, a union of the agricultural societies, having for its special object the advancement of this form of co-operation.

Of the 676 consumers' societies only 172, having a total membership of 110,433, made returns in 1883. These present the following statement—

Number of societies making returns.....	172
Number of members.....	110,433
Total sales.....	£1,634,215 2s.
Average sales of each society.....	9,501 5s.
Members' capital.....	157,625 9s.
Reserves.....	73,883 13s.
Loan capital.....	150,517 9s.
Amount owing for goods.....	20,494 9s.
Net profits....	123,114 14s.
Amount due from members (in 48 societies).....	6,112 5s.
Applied to educational purposes.....	1,250 9s.

The largest consumers' society is at Breslau. It had, in 1883, 22,775 members, and during that year its sales amounted to £241,635 2s.; the net profit being £25,357 18s. A large steam bakery is conducted by the society.

Building societies have met with poor success in Germany, and have been unable to compete with private enterprise.

Dr. Schneider has compiled the following statistics respecting the membership of the people's banks and consumers' societies, and concerning which he makes this statement—

"I add a tabular view of the composition of the members

in the people's banks and consumers' societies, classified according to their occupations, whence the difference in the character of these two classes of societies, notwithstanding the similarity of their objects, appears. The members of the raw material and productive societies belong, with few exceptions, to the corresponding trades, although, so far back as 1868, the productive societies were urged, in order to increase their power of bearing losses, to draw in non-workers as members."

The table shows the percentages of membership of each class in the people's banks and consumers' societies, based upon the returns for 1882 and 1883. Dr. Schneider is of the opinion that had the statistics covered all the societies instead of those making returns only, the result would not have been materially different.

Classification of Membership in People's Banks and Consumers' Societies.

CLASSIFICATION OF MEMBERSHIP.	PEOPLE'S BANKS.		CONSUMERS' SOCIETIES.	
	Percentages by yrs.		Percentages by yrs.	
	1882.	1883.	1882.	1883.
Independent land cultivators, gardeners, foresters and fishers.....	25.4	25.4	3.7	3.7
Assistants and laborers of the foregoing.....	3.0	3.1	3.9	3.87
Manufacturers, and persons engaged in mining and building	3.65	3.6	1.6	1.7
Independent handworkers.....	31.2	30.9	15.3	15.0
Workers in factories and mines, and assistants of handworkers.....	4.7	4.8	40.4	41.2
Independent traders and dealers....	9.6	9.6	4.0	4.0
Clerks and assistants to traders.....	0.7	0.7	1.6	1.4
Carriers, shipowners and innkeepers	5.2	5.1	2.5	2.4
Lettercarriers, employees in railway, telegraph and postoffices, laborers on railways, mariners and waiters.	1.9	1.9	7.7	7.2
Male and female servants.....	1.6	1.0	1.7	2.8
Physicians, apothecaries, teachers, artists, writers, officials of church, state, or municipal bodies.....	6.7	6.7	10.5	10.8
Persons of independent income.....	7.4	7.6	7.1	6.5
Number of societies making returns.	819	825	166	160

CO-OPERATION IN AUSTRIA.*

In Austria the statute of November 26th, 1852, permitted the formation of co-operative societies with unlimited liability. An important change was effected by the law of July 1st, 1873, which required all societies "the number of whose members is unlimited, which seek to benefit their members in their trade or household economy by carrying on business in common," to register at the government registration office. Such societies may be organized, "either with or without limitation of liability, as they determine, the measure of liability in the first case being fixed by their rules."

Unregistered societies formed under the previous law must register upon making any change in their rules, and are gradually becoming extinguished. By a subsequent statute, January 1st, 1880, societies which confine their dealings to their own members are exempt from the traders' tax. Income tax is levied on their net profits, with exemptions and allowances when the yearly income is less than 2,300 florins.

According to the report of Dr. Ziller, who is at the head of the co-operative societies formed in the Austrian empire, the total number of such societies within Austrian territory in 1881 was 1,515. Of these, 317 were unregistered and 1,198 registered. Five hundred and seventy-two registered societies were with limited liability, and 626 unlimited. One thousand one hundred and twenty-nine, or 74.5 per cent. of all the societies, were people's banks; two hundred and thirty-five, or 15.5 per cent., were distributive societies; and the balance were as follows: Raw material supply, 6; agricultural material supply, 14; stores, 3; artisan productive, 41; agricultural productive, 61; building, 5; trading, 10; assurance, 2; various, 9. These statistics include Lower

* Authority: Dr. H. Ziller, of the Austrian Co-operative Union.

and Upper Austria, Lutzburg, the Tyrol, Vorarlberg, Styria, Carinthia, Krain, the Coast Land, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Bukowina, and Dalmatia.

Co-operative distribution does not appear to be very flourishing. It is stated that the number of such societies is scarcely half that formerly existing. The reasons given for the failure of those that have been dissolved are commercial depressions affecting the earnings of those connected with them, heavy taxes assessed on them as traders in certain districts, and bad management of a large number which were formed for political purposes.

Besides the societies which deal in the usual groceries in common demand, a few grind corn, some have bakeries attached, and some sell butchers' meat; but the latter has not generally been found profitable. Most of the societies sell beer and spirits. Drapery and shoes, crockery, hardware and wooden goods are supplied by some. The credit system exists, and the practice of giving credit appears to be increasing. As a consequence the societies which made returns were owing more than 33 per cent. of the value of their stock in trade. Less than half the societies made returns for the year 1881, and some of these returns were imperfect. Of those that made returns the average membership was 630. The information as to application of profits was especially defective. The following general statement is made—

“Many societies, which sell at the lowest practicable prices, make no division of profits, but carry them wholly to reserve. Others, which sell only to their own members, have introduced the practice of distributing profits as dividend on purchases, with very favorable results in their business, which are more favorable than those obtained in the earlier method, adopted from the practice of the people's banks, of dividing the profits in proportion to the paid-up capital, which is preserved in the case of the profits from the sales to non-members.”

Of the artisans' productive societies many, it is stated, have failed because formed to take control of private enterprises that had not been successful. When formed independently by workers possessing sufficient capital to enable them to avoid debt they have succeeded when there was a fair opening for business. Some have failed on account of internal dissensions. Although 41 productive societies of the artisan class are included in the statistics we have quoted, only 12 made returns for the year, and the details are too meagre to afford much light as to the general condition of all the societies. Taxation, in the form of trading licenses, appears to seriously interfere with the prosperity of these societies and, for local reasons, to discriminate against them as compared with private concerns.

Most of the agricultural productive societies confine their operations to dairying. Scarcely any details appear as to these or the other societies enumerated, very few having made returns.

CO-OPERATION IN DENMARK.*

Co-operation in this country appears to be confined to consumers' distributive societies. About 150 such societies are believed to exist. Seventy have been grouped in a wholesale union.

The source of co-operative effort here seems to have been the English societies, the success of which impressed the late Pastor Sonne, who published a work entitled "Workmen's Co-operative Societies in England," thus leading directly to the formation of Danish societies. Since the year 1870 the movement has grown in importance, and appears likely to increase still further under the present organization. A monthly periodical devoted to the interests of co-operators is now issued by the wholesale society.

* Authority: Mr. J. Andrew of the Co-operative Wholesale Society, Copenhagen.

CO-OPERATION IN SPAIN.*

Co-operation has as yet made no progress in Spain. One or two small associations exist, but not in a very flourishing condition. A society established at Bilbao, and also one in Gijon soon failed on account of bad management.

CO-OPERATION IN HUNGARY.†

Distributive co-operation in Hungary, although instituted some years ago, has made little progress. Of late slightly more life has been apparent in the movement, but statistics respecting it are very scanty. The statistical bureau of Hungary has no data upon the subject.

Productive societies are not numerous, the chief examples existing in Buda-Pesth. The chief avenue of co-operative effort is the system of banking analogous to that of Germany.

Dr. Ziller, of the Austrian Co-operative Union, has presented the following statistics for the societies in Hungary, Croatia and Slavonia, in the year 1883: Total number of societies, 357; people's banks, 308; consumers' societies, 16; raw material supply, 2; depots (for selling), 3; agricultural aid societies, 2; artisans' productive societies, 6; agricultural productive societies, 7; assurance societies, 8; miscellaneous, 5.

Five of the consumers' societies show collective sales amounting to 234,468 florins; share capital, 33,231 florins; reserve fund, 33,561 florins; loans, 1,822 florins; indebtedness for goods, 6,222 florins; value of stock at end of year, 45,228 florins; due from members for goods sold on credit, 17,288 florins.

The credit system universally prevails. The artisans' productive societies represent the following trades: Clothmakers, 2; brewers, marble workers, iron workers and lockmakers, 1 each.

* Authority: Mr. Robert R. Evans, English Consul, Bilbao.

† Authorities: Dr. Stephen Bernát, of the Ministry of Agriculture, Buda-Pesth. Dr. H. Ziller, of the Austrian Co-operative Union.

The agricultural productive societies represent dairying, vine culture, and the production of silk.

CO-OPERATION IN ITALY.*

The co-operative movement in Italy began with the political unification of the country, as part of the general progress of the time. People's banks upon substantially the German model were among the first, and are to-day leading examples of Italian co-operative effort. They have increased from 4 in 1865 to 252 in 1883, the capital in the later year being about £2,120,000. They have been very successful, and of great benefit to certain classes, chiefly the middle class traders and artisans, but have not materially aided laborers or the masses of the working population. Other forms of co-operative credit and savings institutions are in progress or contemplated, among others the following—

"A certain number of small agriculturists, generally the very smallest proprietors or farmers, unite themselves into a society with unlimited liability. On this guarantee the society contracts loans at the lowest attainable rate of interest, and out of the sum thus collected make advances to their members who apply for them, at a somewhat higher rate. The bank is to act also as a savings bank. These institutions are specially agricultural, and satisfy the need for small advances, at long periods of repayment, keenly felt by a class of agriculturists numerous in the Italian provinces, that of the small proprietors who cultivate their own land, of the small farmers, and also, in certain cases, of the agricultural laborers, who sometimes cultivate a field on their own account."[†] With these banks agricultural clubs are sometimes united.

Distributive co-operation is in Italy well-known, but the movement in this direction lacks organization. The mode of

* Authority: Dr. Ugo Rabbeno, Reggio Emilia, Italy.

† Rabbeno, Co-operation in Italy. Translated by E. V. Neale. Co-operative Printing Society, Manchester, England.

administering such societies varies. Some are conducted on the Rochdale plan. Others are workingmen's societies, providing various kinds of provisions for members exclusively. A still different class are associations securing special rates for their members upon purchases from private shopkeepers. About 8,000 persons united in societies upon the latter basis in 1880. There is still another class formed by railway employees, for the purpose of obtaining provisions of good quality at low prices. These are joint stock societies analogous to the civil service supply societies of England. The first association of the sort was founded at Turin in 1873, with 53 members and a small capital. In 1883 it had 2,307 members and more than 900 associates, its sales amounting to about £40,000 in that year. Similar societies, all of which have made rapid progress, exist at Milan, Florence, Naples, Sampier d'Arena, Genoa, Verona, and elsewhere. In general, they sell at the lowest possible prices, pay no interest on shares, confine their sales to their own members, and carry the meagre profit upon sales to a reserve fund.

The general consumers' societies were at first based on the Rochdale plan, but owing to differences in national characteristics this plan was not generally successful in Italy, and at present the greater number do not attempt to pay to their customers dividends on purchases as do the English societies, but rather endeavor to sell at lower than ordinary market prices, carrying profits to a dividend on stock. The chief advantage derived from such societies is considered to be their restraining effect upon private retail shopkeepers, compelling the latter by force of competition to sell their goods at fair prices. The range of goods supplied is narrow, being principally confined to bread, flour, grain, vegetables, maccaroni, and vermicelli. In some cases meat and fish are added.

The number of consumers' societies in 1878 was ascertained by government inquiry to be 58, and they are supposed to have considerably increased in number since, but no definite statistics exist.

Dr. Rabbeno, while taking a hopeful view of the progress of distributive co-operation, after mentioning certain localities in which, from his personal knowledge, such progress has been marked, conservatively adds—

“With all this we must not delude ourselves, nor take refuge in equivocal statements. Co-operation for consumption, as it is practiced in Italy, exercises a beneficial influence, especially by contributing to keep down the prices of articles of first necessity. But this influence is very limited. Besides, the greater part of the Italian consumers’ societies are not very flourishing. They lead a rather straitened life. On the whole, co-operation for consumption in Italy is not yet a success. We may hope that it will become such.”

In commenting upon this Mr. Neale, Secretary of the English Co-operative Union, remarks—

“The people’s banks appear to me to form in Italy indirectly a serious hindrance to the spread of co-operation for consumption. By furnishing, through the credit given by them, a support to the small traders, they make the triumph of co-operation, which is in continual conflict with this class of traders, more difficult.”

In the country districts of Lower Lombardy a system of co-operative bakeries exists, founded by Rinaldo Annelli, a priest of the village of Bernate Ticino. The farmers and farm laborers suffered from poor food, owing to insufficient means for individually drying and preserving the grain from mould, especially during wet seasons, although it formed their chief reliance for subsistence. To meet this peculiarly local need Annelli said to the agriculturists—

“We will construct a bakehouse. You shall bring to this bakehouse your grain. Here we intend to get it well dried, that it may keep well. We will make a contract with the miller to grind it on fair terms. We will make it into bread

on the best system and in the most economical manner ; and we will give you as many loaves of bread as will correspond to the corn that you have brought.”*

The instant success of the scheme, which has been elsewhere copied, affords a marked instance of the advantages of mutual effort under certain favorable conditions.

Productive co-operation is limited to a few societies, and although some success is to be noted, is still in the experimental stage. The oldest and most important society is the Artistic Glass Society of Altare, founded in 1856, and for a time subjected to Government opposition. Its original capital was only 14,385 lire, about £463, but the members by carrying to capital monthly instalments of their wages increased it rapidly, until in 1883 it amounted to about £16,639. The value of product in the latter year was about £21,196.

The Co-operative Labor Society at Ismola, manufacturing earthenware and kitchen utensils, was founded in 1874 by Giuseppe Bucci, who gave up to his workmen his own establishment, for which they paid him by instalments. It has been reasonably successful.

In Bologna there are six productive societies engaged in hemp dressing, shoemaking, building and woodworking, leather cutting, glove making and printing. They are all small, but are said to be exerting a good influence. At Milan there is a co-operative society of marble workers, and one of laundresses ; at Bandeno, one of weavers ; at Schio, one engaged in railway and tramway construction, and at Turin, one of working tailors, dressmakers and sempstresses.

The customary division of profits is between shareholders and workers. At Altare and Ismola three per cent. is first paid to shareholders, and of the remaining profit 30 per cent. is carried to a reserve fund ; 25 per cent. to a subsidy fund ; 30 per cent. to shareholders, and 15 per cent. to workers in proportion to the number of days each has worked. Mem-

* Co-operation in Italy.

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bers must become shareholders within four years or leave the society, a requirement that eliminates the thriftless and undeserving.

Another form of productive co-operation in Italy should be noticed—the co-operative association of day laborers. These arose among the agricultural workers of Romagna, and they had in view the emancipation of field laborers from the power of contractors whose custom it was to control every extensive operation in road-making, earthwork, etc. ; farming out the work to sub-contractors and reducing wages to the lowest point, so as to swell profits to themselves without regard to the rights of the laborers dependent upon them. The work, it will be seen, is very simple, requiring little capital and limited skill, thus rendering it easy of performance upon the co-operative plan. The meagre capital required was readily obtained by savings from wages, the par value of shares being placed at a low figure. Almost the only outlay required was for pickaxes, barrows, etc., and in many cases these were already possessed by the workmen. The plan of operation was simple. Large contracts are taken by the society at fixed rates and sub-let in sections to members, who work by the piece. By this plan individual remuneration is in proportion to the work performed. The workers become directly interested in the work and their efficiency is proportionately increased. The middleman is abolished, and the laborer is brought into immediate relations with the proprietor who controls the undertaking. Under these advantages men who previously earned from $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $1s. 2\frac{1}{2}d.$ a day have increased their wages to $2s. 5d.$, and in some cases to $3s. 2\frac{1}{2}d.$ or $4s.$ daily. The first association of this sort, formed at Ravenna with 300 members, grew to a membership of 3,000 within a year. Others upon the same plan are working well.

CO-OPERATION IN SWEDEN.*

Co-operation in Sweden, as in Norway and Finland, is still awaiting development, but owing principally to the efforts of Lars Oscar Smith, a wealthy manufacturer of Stockholm, its future is hopeful. Mr. Smith became interested in the subject by the study of foreign experiments, and especially by witnessing what had been accomplished in Great Britain. He first formed in Stockholm the Sättskapet Arbetarnes Ring, or Workmen's Ring Society, and inspired by this example, 80 similar societies sprang up in the Swedish provinces. An important object of these societies was emancipation from the "ring" rule carried on by the combined proprietors of brandy shops and public houses.

The original Workmen's Ring Society, after variations of fortune, was incorporated during October, 1884, under the name of the Aktiebolaget Arbetarnes Ring, or Workmen's Ring Society, limited. In its corporate organization this society consists of two sections, A and B; the first a wholesale and the last a retail department. To aid the society, in whose welfare he was deeply interested, Mr. Smith supplied the capital which the workmen lacked requisite to conduct the wholesale department, viz.: 100,000 Swedish crowns, representing 20,000 shares. The section B, retail, is provided with capital, upon the basis of five crown shares, in groups of 500 shares each, only one share to be held by each member. Mr. Smith's connection is upon the following terms: Six per cent is to be paid him upon his investment; the balance of profits acquired in both sections is to be carried to a reserve fund, until the latter becomes 100,000 crowns, whereupon the reserve is to be used in taking up the shares held by Mr. Smith, who is to go out of the concern. By this plan the shareholders of section B will ultimately acquire the wholesale business of section A, out of the profits arising from their trade.

* Authority: Mr. A. W. Schulman, of the Aktiebolaget Arbetarnes Ring, Stockholm.

The sections are governed by committees. Whenever a sufficient number of persons will subscribe to take up a group or block of shares in section B, and will pledge themselves to support a store operated by the capital thus supplied, such a store is to be opened, and becomes a department of the society. The retail section therefore admits of indefinite extension, although, as the organization is recent, few stores have yet been started. In general features the organization is based upon that of the English societies—that is, a wholesale department, intended ultimately to be owned and operated by a federation composed of numerous retail associations. Unlike the English stores, which began with the retail departments, and, by natural growth, developed their present complete organization, the Swedish societies, by the aid of the capital supplied by Mr. Smith, have at once the advantage of a wholesale department, with the possibility of acquiring its full ownership in the future.

The business of the Swedish Workmen's Ring is at present confined to groceries and the products of butchering, together with a co-operative steam kitchen for workingmen, originally established by Mr. Smith, but now operated as a department of the society.

Mr. Smith is also the promotor of a co-operative banking society, the Aktiebolaget Arbetareingens Bank, having a capital of more than 300,000 Swedish crowns, in shares of 25 crowns (£1 8s.) each, one-fifth held by Mr. Smith, and the balance by about 8,500 workingmen.

CO-OPERATION IN SWITZERLAND.*

About 130 distributive societies are in operation in Switzerland, of which nine only existed prior to 1860. The larger number are in the cantons of Zurich, Bern, Saint Gallen, Neuchâtel, and Glarus, though some are found in every canton, except Schwytz, Uri, Unterwald and Appenzell-Interior.

* Authority: *The Journal de Genève*, March 6th, 1884.

The majority of the societies, according to their professions, place chief stress upon securing supplies free from adulteration, and the moral advantages of co-operation, rather than upon low prices. These are mainly conducted by the German-speaking population. On the other hand, the minority aim at low prices chiefly, and of these three-fourths are French.

The capital invested in the societies is approximately as follows—

Share capital, 109 societies.....	1,973,779 francs
Reserve fund, 83 societies.....	722,528 "
Bond investments, 9 societies....	430,921 "
 Total.....	 3,127,228 francs.

Societies not represented in the above returns would, if included, probably enlarge the total to 3,250,000 francs. The total number of shareholding members has been estimated at 30,000, the total annual sales at 13,000,000 francs, and the total annual profits at 1,500,000 francs. The moral results attending co-operation in England also appear in Switzerland. No Swiss co-operative union has yet been established.

CO-OPERATION IN THE NETHERLANDS.†

Co-operative societies in the Netherlands have a legal sanction in the statute of November 17th, 1876, and although a few societies had been founded previously, the progress of the movement rests upon this statute.

The General Dutch Workmen's Union (*Het Algemeen Nederlandsch Werkliedenverbond*) and the Society for Self Help (*Vereeniging Eigen Hulp*) are corporations founded for the purpose of promoting co-operative societies and extending co-operative principles. The first has its headquarters at Amsterdam, and the latter at The Hague. Both maintain newspaper organs.

† Authority: J. Th. Braun, of The Hague.

The following co-operative societies have been established since 1876—

Co-operative savings and advancing banks....	8
Consumers' societies.....	23
Co-operative bakeries.....	2
Co-operative butchering establishment.....	1
Building societies.....	13
Agricultural societies.....	3
Society for managing funerals (undertakers)..	1
<hr/>	
Total.....	51

Divisions of the Workmen's Union exist in several towns and have founded small associations administered under domestic rules and not incorporated. The co-operative savings and advancing banks are located at Amsterdam, The Hague, Leeuwarden, Middleburg, Goes, Enschede and Veendam.

Most of the consumers' societies are upon the limited liability plan. The cash system is generally adhered to. Some sell only to members at as low rates as possible.* Others sell to every one and divide profits among members yearly in proportion to consumption, allowing undrawn dividends to remain on interest.†

The two co-operative bakeries enumerated are in successful operation at The Hague and at Koog aan de Zaan (North Holland) respectively. At The Hague, members upon joining pay 1*s.* 8*d.* In April, 1885, the society had 1,050 members. Dividends are paid in bread during the year as demanded, each member's dividend being in proportion to his consumption during the previous year. At Koog the yearly surplus is divided among widows of deceased members upon the basis of the consumption of the recipient during the previous year.

* Civil service plan.

† Somewhat similar to the Rochdale plan.

The agricultural societies conduct the business of transporting and selling farm produce for the common account of members in foreign and native markets, besides which one society has a productive character.

The co-operative associations that belong to the Society for Self-Help have a common agency for the purchase of supplies in the *Gesamelyke Inkoop van Eigen Hulp*, at Rotterdam, which, though loosely organized, is really the germ of a wholesale society.

A division of the Society for Self-Help devotes itself to the dissemination of supplies among army and navy officers, and, is similar to the army and navy supply societies in England although at present rather limited in its operations.

CO-OPERATION IN AUSTRALIA.*

The leading co-operative society in Australia is the Equitable Co-operative Society, of Melbourne, administered on the Rochdale plan. Business was begun in 1882, and certain errors of management, due to inexperience, having been remedied, the society is now firmly established and progressing rapidly. Early in the present year, 1885, the number of members was 1,990; paid up capital, £46,100, and deposits, £7,000, drawing interest at 5 per cent.

The department includes groceries, hardware, wines and spirits, crockery, boots and shoes, drugs and chemicals, stationery, drapery, millinery, carpets and upholstery, tailoring and dressmaking. The number of employees in the distributive service is about 90, one-third of whom are boys and girls. About 56 productive employees are also engaged. A monthly journal, called the *Equitable Co-operator*, is published by the society in its interests and circulated free of charge. Goods are delivered free to purchasers in Melbourne and suburbs. An experienced buyer is employed in London, and about one-half the stock in trade is imported.

* Authority: Mr. William Nuttall, Secretary of the Equitable Co-operative Society, Melbourne.

Some other distributive societies exist in Australia, called co-operative, but mostly on the joint stock plan. Under the influence of the Equitable Society co-operation in that country will no doubt be further developed.

THE ARLINGTON CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATION, AT LAWRENCE,
MASSACHUSETTS.

Distributive co-operation in the United States has been tried upon various plans, notably under the patronage of the Sovereigns of Industry, Patrons of Husbandry, Knights of Labor, and similar organizations. Being in most instances incidental only to the main purpose of such orders, the fate of these distributive stores has usually been determined by the success or failure of the primary objects of the organization.

In Texas a co-operative wholesale society and about 150 retail stores are in existence in connection with the order of Patrons of Husbandry.* Isolated experiments, not successful, have been made in New York City and in Brooklyn. The Arlington Co-operative Association at Lawrence, Mass., however, furnishes an example of successful American distributive co-operation on substantially the Rochdale plan.

The association is limited to employees of the Arlington mills. In this feature of limitation the plan of the English stores is not adhered to, as membership in the latter is not restricted. Officers are elected annually, consisting of a secretary, treasurer and ten directors, one of whom is chosen president by the board, and regular quarterly meetings are held. Special meetings may be called by the president with the consent of a majority of the directors, and must be called upon the written request of ten members. Auditors are chosen annually by the stockholders by ballot. The manager of the store is selected by the directors, and is at present a thoroughly competent person, trained in the principles of distributive co-operation in England.

* J. B. Long, Rusk, Texas.

The administration of the society is similar to that of the English societies which we have described. Three members of the board of directors constitute an advisory committee whose duty it is to consult with the manager as to purchases of stock, and to approve all bills before the same are paid by the treasurer. The latter officer is placed under bonds. The manager is held responsible for the correct accounting of stock in trade, makes a daily report of sales and accounts to the treasurer, and takes account of stock quarterly. He gives such bonds as the directors require for the faithful performance of his duties.

Members may hold from one to two hundred shares. The par value of shares is five dollars. Members upon joining pay an initiation fee of 50 cents, all sums so received being carried to the sinking fund, to which fund is also carried not less than 10 per cent. of profits annually. Under the rules the sinking fund is to be allowed to accumulate until it shall amount to 30 per cent. in excess of the capital stock. Amounts carried to the sinking fund, and other sums in excess of the business needs of the association are placed on deposit in the savings bank until sufficient in the aggregate to purchase five shares of Arlington mills stock, when the deposit, at the discretion of the directors, may be withdrawn and invested in such stock under such provisions as the treasurer of the corporation and the State law may require. "On all certificates of stock thus issued there shall be endorsed the provision that interest shall be paid at the rate of one per cent. less than the average dividend declared by the Arlington corporation for the current year."* This provision as to investments, taken together with the fact that members must be employees of the Arlington corporation, introduces indirectly a productive element.

The cash system is enforced. No intoxicating liquors are sold. Sales are made at the average retail market price.

* By-laws of the Association.

Each stockholder has one vote in business meetings. Shares are withdrawable after thirty days' notice, or if, for any reason, payment is delayed after thirty days upon shares which a member has duly signified his intention to withdraw, such shares may be transferred to any other member who has not already the maximum number of shares to which he is entitled under the rules; but no transfer can be made to non-members unless by the consent of the directors in writing, signed by the president and secretary, and entered upon the records of the association.

After providing for the sinking fund, interest on capital stock at the rate of five per cent. annually, and the payment of taxes, profits are divided quarterly in proportion to the purchases of the recipients, non-members sharing at half the rate allowed to members. After one dollar has been paid in on stock subscribed for, the subscriber is entitled to a full dividend. Dividends and interest declared on stock may remain on deposit. Interest on money paid in for shares commences on the first of each month. No interest is paid on shares withdrawn before the end of the quarter. When the undrawn dividends and interest placed to the credit of any person amount to the par value of one share, interest is declared on the accumulation in the same manner as provided for money paid in for shares, provided that such accumulation, together with the original shares invested, shall not exceed the par value of 200 shares.

The association was incorporated July 8th, 1884. Business was begun September 15th, 1884, and the first fiscal year was closed October, 1st, 1885. The average capital for the year, \$3,320, was turned over more than eleven times, and thus realized a return of nearly 74 per cent. in less than 13 months. The following statistical statement, from the director's report, exhibits the uniform progress of the society—

Progress of the Arlington Co-operative Association.

CLASSIFICATION.	Total Sales.	Gross Profits.	Salaries, Expenses, and Interest.	Net Profits.
First quarter, 15 weeks.	\$10,828 89	\$1,743 62	\$1,024 93	\$718 69
Second " 13 weeks.	8,783 92	1,479 52	954 98	524 54
Third, " 13 weeks.	8,615 01	1,087 15	830 46	256 69
Fourth " 13 weeks.	9,967 12	1,809 75	1,036 61	773 14
Totals.....	\$38,194 94	\$6,120 04	\$3,846 98	\$2,273 06

Progress of the Arlington Co-operative Association—CONCLUDED.

CLASSIFICATION.	Profits Divided.	Carried to Sinking Fund.	Interest on Capital.	Total return on Capital.
First quarter, 15 weeks.	\$544 54	\$174 15	\$51 13	\$769 82
Second " 13 weeks.	449 44	75 10	40 48	565 02
Third " 13 weeks.	348 58	—91 89*	40 89	297 58
Fourth " 13 weeks.	607 42	165 72	40 74	813 88
Totals.....	\$1,949 98	\$323 08	\$173 24	\$2,446 30

The totals of the foregoing table afford the basis for the following statement: The gross profit amounts to 16.02 per cent. on sales; salaries and expenses, 10.07 per cent. on sales; net profits, 5.95 per cent. on sales; the profits-divided represent an average on checks returned of 6.24 per cent. for full dividend, and 3.12 per cent. for half dividend; the sinking fund represents more than 14 per cent. of net profits, besides initiation fees; the interest is five per cent. on capital, and the total return on capital is 73.68 per cent.

At the close of the first year's business the share capital represented 664 shares; merchandise in stock, including dry goods and fuel, amounted to \$2,554.27; fixtures, \$767.28; cash in bank, \$1,249.26; and the association might well congratulate itself on the results accomplished, and the prosperous future apparently before it.

* This amount deducted.

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